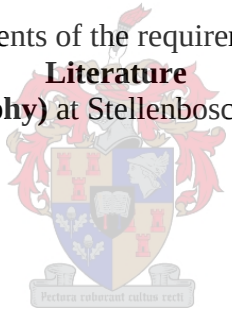
TOWARDS A LEXICOGRAPHICAL INTERVENTION IN THE ACQUISITION AND USE OF ENGLISH IN ZIMBABWE

DION NKOMO

Dissertation presented in fulfilments of the requirements of the degree of **Doctor of Literature (Lexicography)** at Stellenbosch University



PROMOTER: PROF. R. H. GOUWS

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DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

ABSTRACT

Towards a Lexicographical Intervention in the Acquisition and Use of English in Zimbabwe

This study considers a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. English is the country's sole official language. This means that it dominates all the other languages in the country in terms of prestige and usage in the high status domains such as government, media, law, education, etc. English is learnt as a compulsory subject throughout the education system up to the General Certificate of Ordinary Level ('O' Level) and used as medium of instruction from the fourth grade upwards. The annual national pass rate of around 33% and less than 10% for some schools in this subject has been recorded in recent years. An 'O' Level certificate is considered complete if is has registered five 'O' Level subjects including English. This means that without an 'O' Level English pass, learners have no chance to proceed to the General Certificate in Education Advanced Level ('A' Level) or tertiary education, and their chances of getting employment in the public service are limited, if not non-existent. In the mainstream scholarship on language policy and language planning in the country, this situation has resulted in advocating that indigenous languages, particularly Shona and Ndebele, be developed and elevated to the official status currently enjoyed by English. Far from being against the development and status elevation of indigenous languages, this study proposes a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English as one of the necessary mechanisms that may mitigate some problems associated with this language. It is argued that the problem with English is not simply that it is a language of foreign origin, to be explicit, the language of the former colonial master. Rather, the problem is that the majority of Zimbabweans are not competent enough to function in this language. Of course, this may be related to the fact that many Zimbabweans have to learn it as an additional language since it is not an indigenous language and thus linguistically and culturally distant from the native languages of its learners.

Dealing with the field of lexicography, this dissertation considers an intervention with respect to those problems that may be addressed by the consultation of dictionaries. The availability, use and user-friendliness of English dictionaries are investigated in view of the characteristics of Zimbabweans as additional language learners of English, their situations in which lexicographically-relevant problems occur and the subsequent information needs. In doing this, the theory of learners' lexicography (Tarp 2004; 2004a; 2008) is used. Firstly, it is established that dictionaries are scarce commodities in Zimbabwe, with a very limited range of dictionaries being available for Zimbabweans to buy. Secondly, dictionaries are not actively used in the learning and use of English within the school system, except in the former Group A schools which are elitist in nature. Curriculum developers, teachers, assessors and learners are not very clear about the role of dictionaries within the school system. Thirdly, the dictionaries that are used are not appropriate for the learners who consult them, with advanced learners' dictionaries dominating the limited presence even at primary schools. Notwithstanding this poor background, it is generally accepted that appropriate dictionaries, despite the fact that there is a general lack of awareness of the differences between dictionaries, may address some of the problems associated with English, especially within the education system. Should this happen, the learners will develop a dictionary culture and regard dictionaries as utility products which they may rely on later in their academic and professional careers in which English continues to be dominant.

A model of lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe is therefore formulated. This is done against the above background and also the history of both English and Zimbabwean lexicography. English lexicography now sees English dictionaries being produced in a host of countries other than Britain, America, Australia and New Zealand, where English is a native language. This is mainly because of the dominant role that English has acquired in those countries such as South Africa. However, Zimbabwean lexicography has thus far focused on mother-tongue dictionaries in Shona and Ndebele, the main reason being the need to develop these formerly marginalised languages. Accordingly, the proposed model seeks to expand the scope of Zimbabwean lexicography. This is not just for the sake of expanding. On the contrary, in the research it is observed that the dictionaries constituting the envisaged lexicographical intervention have to be produced in Zimbabwe in order for them to effectively address the local needs regarding this language. For example, lemma selection, paraphrases of meaning, illustrative examples and data contained in the outer texts have to be linguistically and culturally relevant, taking into cognisance the native languages and cultures of the target users.

It is observed that if the proposed model is to be successfully implemented, local publishers will need to play an important role, while curriculum developers, assessors, teachers and learners have to be lexicographically educated. At present, local publishers with international affiliations distribute externally-motivated dictionaries (Gouws 2005). Where dictionaries are used, no serious consideration is given regarding the appropriateness of the dictionaries. Any available dictionary is purchased regardless of its user-friendliness. Unfortunately this results in a situation where users fail to extract the best from the dictionaries and end up being disillusioned about the usefulness of dictionaries as utility tools. Some of the dictionaries found at schools are just locked in safe cabinets in headmasters' offices while learners continue experiencing problems that could be solved by appropriate dictionaries. Accordingly, with lexicographical pedagogy, and further research on specific aspects of the model, a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe is considered a worthwhile enterprise.

OPSOMMING

Op weg na 'n leksikografiese tussenkoms in die verwerwing en gebruik van Engels in Zimbabwe

Hierdie studie beskou 'n leksikografiese tussenkoms in die verwerwing en gebruik van Engels in Zimbabwe. Engels is die land se enigste offisiële taal. Dit beteken dat dit al die ander tale in die land oorheers wat betref prestige en gebruik in die hoërstatusterreine soos die regering, media, reg, opvoeding, ens. Engels word as 'n verpligte vak geleer dwarsdeur die opvoedingstelsel tot by die Algemene Sertifikaat van Gewone Vlak ('O'-vlak) en gebruik as onderrigmedium vanaf die vierde graad en hoër. Die jaarlikse nasionale slaagsyfer van rondom 33% en minder as 10% vir sommige skole in hierdie vak is in onlangse jare waargeneem. 'n 'O'-vlaksertifikaat word as volledig beskou indien dit vyf 'O'-vlakvakke insluitende Engels geregistreer het. Dit beteken dat sonder die slaag van Engels op 'O'-vlak leerders geen kans het om voort te gaan na die Algemene Sertifikaat in Opvoedkunde Gevorderde Vlak ('A'-vlak) of tersiêre onderwys nie, en hul kanse is beperk, indien nie nie-bestaande nie, om werk in die openbare diens te kry. In die hoofstroomvakkundigheid betreffende taalpolitiek en taalbeplanning in die land het hierdie situasie daartoe gelei dat bepleit word dat die inheemse tale, veral Sjona en Ndebele, ontwikkel en verhef word tot die offisiële status wat tans deur Engels geniet word. Verre van teen die ontwikkeling en statusverheffing van die inheemse tale te wees, stel hierdie studie 'n tussenkoms in die verwerwing en gebruik van Engels voor as een van die noodsaaklike meganismes wat sommige probleme wat verband hou met hierdie taal, kan versag. Daar word geredeneer dat die probleem met Engels nie eenvoudig is dat dit 'n taal van vreemde herkoms, om dit onomwonde te stel, die taal van die vroeëre koloniale baas is nie. Die probleem is eerder dat die meerderheid Zimbabwiërs nie bedrewe genoeg is om in hierdie taal te funksioneer nie. Dit kan natuurlik verwant wees aan die feit dat baie Zimbabwiërs dit as 'n bykomende taal moet leer aangesien dit nie 'n inheemse taal is nie en daarom linguisties en kultureel verwyder is van die inheemse tale van sy leerders.

Omdat dit oor die gebied van die leksikografie handel, beskou hierdie verhandeling 'n tussenkoms met betrekking tot daardie probleme wat deur die raadpleging van woordeboeke benader kan word. Die beskikbaarheid, gebruik en gebruikersvriendelikheid van Engelse woordeboeke word ondersoek met betrekking tot die kenmerke van Zimbabwiërs as leerders van Engels as 'n bykomende taal, hul omstandighede waarin leksikografies relevante probleme voorkom en die gevolglike inligtingsbehoeftes. Om dit te doen, word die teorie van aanleerdersleksikografie (Tarp 2004; 2004a; 2008) gebruik. Eerstens is vasgestel dat woordeboeke skaars artikels in Zimbabwe is, met 'n baie beperkte reeks woordeboeke vir Zimbabwiërs om te koop. Tweedens word woordeboeke nie daadwerklik aangewend by die leer en gebruik van Engels binne die skoolstelsel nie, behalwe in die vroeëre Groep A-skole wat elitisties van aard is. Leerplanontwikkelaars, onderwysers, assessore en leerders het nie baie groot duidelikheid oor die rol van woordeboeke binne die skoolstelsel nie. Derdens, die woordeboeke wat gebruik word, is nie geskik vir die leerders wat hulle raadpleeg nie, met gevorderde aanleerderswoordeboeke wat selfs in primêre skole die beperkte aanwesigheid oorheers. Nieteenstaande hierdie swak agtergrond, word dit algemeen aanvaar dat geskikte woordeboeke, ten spyte van die feit dat daar 'n algemene gebrek aan 'n bewustheid van die verskille tussen woordeboeke is, sommige van die probleme wat met Engels verband hou, veral in die onderwysstelsel, kan oplos. Sou dit gebeur, sal leerders 'n woordeboekkultuur ontwikkel en woordeboeke as nutsartikels beskou waarop hulle later kan steun in hul akademiese en professionele loopbane waarin Engels voortgaan om oorheersend te wees.

'n Model van leksikografiese tussenkoms in die verwerwing en gebruik van Engels in Zimbabwe word gevolglik geformuleer. Dit word gedoen teen die voorafgaande agtergrond en ook die geskiedenis van sowel Engelse as Zimbabwiese leksikografie. Engelse leksikografie toon tans dat Engelse woordeboeke voortgebring word in 'n menigte ander lande as Brittanje, Amerika, Australië en Nieu-Seeland waar Engels 'n inheemse taal is. Dit is hoofsaaklik as gevolg van die oorheersende rol wat Engels in daardie lande soos Suid-Afrika verkry het. Zimbabwiese leksikografie het egter tot sover gefokus op moedertaalwoordeboeke in Sjona en Ndebele, met as hoofrede die behoefte om hierdie voorheen gemarginaliseerde tale te ontwikkel. Gevolglik probeer die voorgestelde model om die omvang van Zimbabwiese leksikografie uit te brei. Dit is nie net ter wille van uitbreiding nie. Inteendeel. In die navorsing word dit waargeneem dat die woordeboeke wat die beoogde leksikografiese tussenkoms uitmaak, in Zimbabwe voortgebring moet word vir hulle om die plaaslike behoeftes met betrekking tot hierdie taal doeltreffend te benader. Byvoorbeeld, lemmakeuse, betekenisparafrases, toeligtende voorbeelde en data bevat in die buitetekste moet linguisties en kultureel toepaslik wees om die inheemse tale en kulture van die teikengebruikers in aanmerking te neem.

Daar word opgemerk dat, om die voorgestelde model suksesvol deur te voer, plaaslike uitgewers 'n belangrike rol sal moet speel, terwyl leerplanontwikkelaars, assessore, onderwysers en leerders leksikografies opgevoed sal moet word. Op die oomblik versprei plaaslike uitgewers met internasionale verbintenisse ekstern-gemotiveerde woordeboeke (Gouws 2005). Waar woordeboeke gebruik word, word geen ernstige oorwegings geskenk aan die geskiktheid van woordeboeke nie. Enige beskikbare woordeboek word gekoop ongeag sy bruikbaarheid. Ongelukkig lei dit tot 'n situasie waar gebruikers in gebreke bly om die beste uit die woordeboeke te haal en ontnugter eindig oor die nuttigheid van woordeboeke as gebruiksgereedskap Sommige van die woordeboeke wat in skole aangetref is, word net in veilige kaste in skoolhoofde se kantore weggesluit, terwyl leerders voortgaan om probleme te ondervind wat opgelos kan word deur geskikte woordeboeke. Met leksikografiese opvoeding, en verdere navorsing oor bepaalde aspekte van die model, word 'n leksikografiese tussenkoms in die verwerwing en gebruik van Engels in Zimbabwe gevolglik as 'n verdienstelike onderneming beskou.

DEDICATION

To my late grandmother, **Mrs Elizabeth Nkomo**, with whom I stayed with during my first school days. It is sad that she is no longer there to boast of how she made me what I am. May her dear soul rest in eternal peace. I also dedicate this dissertation to all the people who made different sacrifices towards this accomplishment.

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ABBREVIATIONS / ACRONYMS

'A' Level:	(General Certificate of Education) Advanced Level
'O' Level:	(General Certificate of Education) Ordinary Level
ALLEX:	African Languages Lexical (Project)
ALRI: African	Languages Research Institute
CDU:	Curriculum Development Unit
COBUILD:	Collins-Birmingham University International Language Database
CROBOL:	Cross-Border Languages (Project)
IPA:	International Phonetic Alphabet
LDCE:	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
LFISD:	*Longman Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary*
LNJED:	*Longman New Junior English Dictionary*
LPD:	*Longman Primary Dictionary*
LSASD:	*Longman South African School Dictionary*
LSP:	Language for Specific Purposes
MED:	*Macmillan English Dictionary*
MSD:	*Macmillan School Dictionary*
NLPAP:	National Language Policy Advisory Panel
NMED:	*New Method English Dictionary*
OALD:	*Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary*
OCD:	*Oxford Children's Dictionary*
OED:	*Oxford English Dictionary*

OFD:	*Oxford First Dictionary*
OPD:	*Oxford Primary Dictionary*
OPSD:	*Oxford Popular School Dictionary*
OSASD:	*Oxford South African School Dictionary*
OUP:	Oxford University Press
OUP SA:	Oxford University Press South Africa
SAOSD:	*South African Oxford School Dictionary*
SAOSSD:	*South African Oxford Secondary School Dictionary*
SARS:	severe acute respiratory system
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UZ:	University of Zimbabwe
VSD:	*Ventures School Dictionary*
ZANU:	Zimbabwe African National Union
ZAPU:	Zimbabwe African People's Union
ZE:	Zimbabwean English
ZIMSEC:	Zimbabwe School Examinations Council
ZJC:	Zimbabwe Junior Certificate

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This study considers a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. English is the country's only official language. It is mainly acquired as a second or even third language through formal school learning. Accordingly, the term most preferred in referring to English in this research is *additional language*. According to Judd, Tan and Walberg (2001: 6), this term refers to all languages except the first language learnt by an individual.

As a school subject, English is regarded by many Zimbabweans, especially learners and other stakeholders in the education sector, as one of the most difficult subjects. Consequently, it is generally viewed as a hindrance to upward social mobility. In both good and even extreme measures, Zimbabwean scholars in language planning and policy studies have argued for the elevation of indigenous languages, mainly Shona and Ndebele, to the official status enjoyed by English in order to open up opportunities for those who fail to master English (Chimhundu 1993, Hadebe 1998, NLPAP 1998, Nziramasanga et al 1999, Magwa 2008). Shona and Ndebele appeal to the majority of Zimbabwean scholars mainly because they are indigenous languages. However, neither of the two is a native language to the entire population, they still have to be learnt as additional languages by other Zimbabweans (Mumpande 2006, Ndhlovu 2009, Nyika 2008).

The present study does not necessarily oppose the status elevation and development of indigenous languages for more functional roles. However, it contends that such an approach alone does not constitute a panacea to the country's language-related problems (cf. Makoni, Dube and Mashiri 2006). It is unwise to attribute all the challenges associated with English to the fact that it is a language of foreign origin and then assume that Shona and Ndebele would necessarily eradicate them since the latter are also seen through the same lens as English by certain linguistic communities in the country (cf. Mumpande 2006, Ndhlovu 2009, Nyika 2008). Therefore, rather than merely replacing English with certain indigenous languages or raising the latter

to the status of the former, it is equally important to diagnose and dissect the problems of the former and address them in a direct way. Shying away will not solve the country's linguistic problems as long as English remains within the picture.

As far as this study is concerned, the problem of English is generally a problem of additional language acquisition which is constituted of several linguistic and extra-linguistic challenges. The linguistic challenges are related to the phonological, morphological and syntactic features of the language which are very different from those of native languages that are acquired as early as one starts to talk. The extra-linguistic challenges are related to the very fact that English has to be learnt at school, compounded by cultural differences between this language and the native languages, quality of teachers (mostly non-native speakers of the language) and the quality of teaching methods. A critical approach to these problems is necessary for the language to continue serving its functions without being disadvantageous to the majority of Zimbabweans as is currently the case. It will actually complement the long preferred approach of elevating the country's indigenous languages.

The area of this study is lexicography. In simple terms, lexicography may be defined as a field concerned with the practical compilation of dictionaries and studies pertaining to this activity as well as dictionary use. Accordingly, the study does not concern all the problems associated with English acquisition or the English language in Zimbabwe for that matter. Rather, it investigates what, in terms of Tarp (2008), may be called lexicographically relevant problems pertaining to the acquisition and use of the language. Its main endeavour is to provide lexicographical solutions to those kinds of problems. This means that from a plethora of problems associated with English acquisition, including the social and psychological ones, the study will identify only those that can be addressed by consulting dictionaries, if available, or compiling dictionaries which may provide the relevant assistance. Hence, the title of the dissertation: *Towards a Lexicographical Intervention in the Acquisition and Use of English in Zimbabwe*.

Being a general exposition of the entire study, this chapter provides an overview of English in Zimbabwe, focusing on its position within the country's language profile. The overview is meant to underline the importance of the acquisition of this language

and provide the context within which Zimbabweans experience certain problems in the process of learning it and after failing to attain the required proficiency levels. This is done in Section 1.1. Section 1.2 outlines the history of Zimbabwean lexicography up to date. Such a juxtaposition problematises Zimbabwean lexicography as it indicates that, contrary to the dominant role of English in the country's national affairs, lexicographical activities have so far not directed due attention to the lexicographical problems associated with English. The problem statement is expressed in Section 1.3, before outlining the main objectives of the study in 1.4. Section 1.5 delimits the scope of this study and the justification of the study is made in 1.6. A review of the relevant literature is made in Section 1.7, which ends by explicitly indicating the envisaged contribution of this study. An outline of the entire dissertation is provided in Section 1.8.

1.1 Mapping English in Zimbabwe

As indicated above, English is Zimbabwe's sole official language. This means that it serves the most important functions ahead of an excess of twenty indigenous African languages. Two of those languages, Shona and Ndebele, are generally regarded as national languages (cf. NLPAP 1998: 18). Although it is not very clear what that really means, what is apparent is that they play second fiddle to English. Yet they are better off than the rest, the so-called minority languages (Mumpande 2006, Ndhlovu 2009, Nyika 2008).

In order to shed more light on the position of English in Zimbabwe, it may suffice to briefly outline its history and exemplify its functions in certain sectors such as education, media, law, public administration and business. At the same time, an understanding of the general attitudes of Zimbabweans, especially learners, education officials, government policy-makers and language policy scholars, may be enhanced.

1.1.1 The History of English in Zimbabwe

There is no other way of historicising English in Zimbabwe without touching on the country's colonial history. English became the language of administration in the then (Southern) Rhodesia following the British occupation of Mashonaland in 1890 and Matabeleland in 1893. The trends were similar in all British colonies, as it was also the case in the French and Portuguese colonies (cf. Bamgbose 1991). The language of the empire automatically became the language of its colonies. Accordingly, Phillipson (1992) regards the development of English into a global language as linguistic imperialism. In Africa, it also resulted in the continent being conveniently partitioned into Anglophone, Francophone and Lusophone countries (Bamgbose 1991, Ngugi 1986). The history of English in Zimbabwe is, therefore, deeply rooted in the country's colonial history. However, international trade and other elements of globalisation are responsible for the continued position of English and its spread to non-Anglophone countries.

As it will emerge from this study, some problems experienced by Zimbabweans regarding English have to do with the fact that the role of this language has always been taken for granted from the outset. The earliest deliberate interventions in the country's language-related problems were mainly directed at indigenous languages. Never were the challenges that English presented to the majority of people who spoke indigenous languages seriously considered despite the fact that they had to learn it in order to play active roles in the national affairs, notwithstanding the fact that their roles were limited in a colonial set-up. The activities of missionaries and a well-known linguist, Clement Doke, who was commissioned by the Rhodesian government in 1930 to carry out research that has informed Zimbabwe's language-in-education policy and national language policy in general up to date bear adequate testimony to the fact that English has always been taken for granted (Chimhundu 1992, Ndhlovu 2006). Doke was consulted mainly to address the challenge posed by the multilingual situation that prevailed in the country, especially in view of the related language varieties that were later clustered into standard Shona (Doke 1931: 1). Besides the standardisation of Shona, he also recommended that Shona and Ndebele should be taught as the main indigenous languages in Mashonaland and Matabeleland respectively, in addition to English (Doke 1931). This means that the role of English

was a given. Thus, the indigenous languages were already playing second fiddle to English in the education sector, which would become the case in the other spheres of life despite the fact that the majority of speakers were not competent in the latter.

The analysis presented in the preceding paragraph provides an explanation for the contradictory attitudes of Zimbabweans towards English since the colonial era up to date. From the outset, English was a colonial language. It was regarded as a foreign tool of local conquest, domination, marginalisation and oppression of the indigenous citizenry. Colonialism espoused as intrinsic the superiority of English over indigenous languages, with competence in the language being an achievement of very few Zimbabweans. Accordingly, the language question was a political one as well. It was pivotal in the activities of cultural advocacy groups like the Matabeleland Home Society and the Shona Cultural Society of which key Zimbabwean nationalists such as former vice-presidents Joshua Nkomo and Simon Muzenda were leading members (cf. Bhebe 2004: 118). Although the nationalist leaders were themselves respected for their proficiency in English, they challenged the exalted status vested in English in the country's national affairs since the language was only spoken by the minority. This was paradoxical, given that the nationalist leaders were being respected for, among other things, their ability to articulate the plight of the nation using English. Such a paradox would continue to characterise language planning and policy formulation after independence, not only in Zimbabwe but in many former British colonies.

In order to understand the role assumed by former colonial languages in the post-colonial dispensations, it would perhaps be necessary to explore the very foundations of colonial language policies. Pennycook (2002) and Tollefson (2002) highlight the dilemma which characterised policy formulation and implementation in a colonial set-up regarding languages such as English vis-à-vis indigenous languages. According to Pennycook (2002: 96), the formulation and implementation of language policies had to ensure that the colonised remained governable and docile subjects of colonial governments. He argues that on one hand, the governments feared that once many colonised people became competent in a language such as English, they would have equal opportunities to those of colonial masters, given the assumed superiority of the language. On this basis, mother-tongue education, which was substantially inferior, would be provided for the colonised. In political terms, this approach was hoped to

deny the colonised, especially in the case of multilingual African societies, a unifying language of mobilisation against foreign domination. Yet on the other hand, the strong relationship between language and culture was not undermined. In this case, the fear was that an attempt to marginalise indigenous people together with their languages would leave the cultural values which held the people together intact. This would also be counterproductive given that colonialism was hoped to thrive through alienating people from their cultural values and practices. It is in this respect that Tollefson (2002) suggests the notion of *competing agendas* as a deciding factor in the formulation of colonial language policies. In the post-colonial era, Fishman's (1968) notions of *nationalism* and *nationism* would be examples of competing agendas in language planning. Many post-colonial countries in Africa have language policies which are dominated by former colonial languages as official languages whose position is at odds with the proficiency levels of most citizens (cf. Chimhundu 1993, Hadebe 1998). The practical implications of addressing this situation by elevating indigenous languages have prolonged the debates about the role of former colonial languages vis-à-vis indigenous languages with very little progress when it comes to implementation. An argument for addressing proficiency problems in English may attract fierce opposition from the majority of scholars who regard former colonial languages as impediments in the long route of total decolonisation (cf. Ngugi 1986). The nationalist ideology is still strong among many language policy and planning scholars. However, the present study is not necessarily at odds with these scholars as its ultimate aim is to address the socio-economic imbalances which negatively affect the majority who struggle to master English by suggesting one form of intervention in the acquisition of this language. The bad history of English, which is associated with the marginalisation of the majority, should not be allowed to repeat itself in perpetuity. The problem also needs to be conquered.

1.1.2 English and the national language policy

Zimbabwe does not have a comprehensive national language policy document. However, there have been numerous language policy formulation efforts and language policy decrees by government agents and other interested stakeholders.

These include the following:

- Hosting of and participating at the inter-governmental conference on language planning in 1996. This resulted in the production of 'The Harare Declaration' and the 'Positional Paper on Zimbabwe's Language Policy'.
- The 1987 Education Act which contains a section entitled 'Languages to be taught in schools'. The section continues to be a major reference as far as Zimbabwe's language policy is concerned and it has been subjected to various amendments whose targets have been to improve the role of indigenous languages (see 1.1.2.4 for a detailed discussion of its clauses).
- The commissioning of the National Language Policy Advisory Panel to undertake a fact-finding mission and advise the government on the formulation and implementation of a comprehensive national language policy which would be binding in both the private and the public sectors. The panel produced a fairly comprehensive report (NLPAP 1998) which should have been a firm basis for a national language policy for independent Zimbabwe.
- The commissioning of a commission led by Charles Nziramasanga to advise the government on an educational policy for independent Zimbabwe. This commission, which was named after its chairperson, produced a report (Nziramasanga et al 1999) which contains recommendations not only for the educational language policy, but also on how such a policy would facilitate the implementation of the recommendations of the NLPAP (1998).

The dominant role of English vis-à-vis that of indigenous languages in Zimbabwe has always been a cause for concern from different angles. From an educational perspective the argument has been that it impedes academic success since the language is not best understood by both learners and teachers. It would be recommended accordingly that indigenous languages be used at the early stages of literacy, with English assuming prominence upwards from the fourth grade (NLPAP 1998, Nziramasanga et al 1999). From a socio-economic perspective, it has been observed with concern that the majority of citizens do not play significant and informed roles in national affairs because they are not proficient in English which is the main language (Hadebe 1998, NLPAP 1998). For example, it was once revealed that some parliamentarians do not participate in Zimbabwean parliamentary debates because they are handicapped by their incompetence in English (*Hansard*, 23 July 1997). Even when the provision was made for the use of indigenous languages, mainly Shona and Ndebele, it has been reported that those members of the house who use the indigenous languages are ridiculed by others (*Hansard*, 23 July 1997).

The fact that all the outlined efforts to formulate a national language policy have not been implemented leaves English with its dominant status that was acquired during the colonial era. This is clearly highlighted by language practices in the legal practice, administration, trade and the education sector which seems to nurture those practices.

1.1.2.1 English in law and administration

Although, Zimbabwe's national language policy may be constructed through observations, interpretations and inferences from several areas of the public sector (cf. Ndhlovu 2009), the language provisions regarding legal practice are so binding that they may be taken as possible clauses of the language policy. These mainly pertain to the qualifications expected of legal practitioners, trial procedures and other legal services in Zimbabwean courts of law. Articles 82 and 87 of the Zimbabwean constitution state that in order to be registered as an Ombudsman, one *must* have trained and practiced, for at least seven years, "in a country in which common law is Roman-Dutch or *English* and *where English is the official language*". This implies that the candidate or legal practitioner must have been trained through the English medium. This is even more explicitly prescribed in Article 18 (3) (f), according to which an arrested or detained person "shall be permitted to have without payment the assistance of an interpreter if he/she cannot understand *the language that is used at the trial*, *which is English*". Then English is the language of law in Zimbabwe and since law binds every national and personal conduct, it is safe to conclude that it is the country's official language whose acquisition, command and use would ensure that one is legally correct. Language practices in the other domains seem to be consistent with the linguistic provisions in the legal sector.

English is the main language of national administration. Individuals taking up employment in various government departments are required to have passed English as a subject at the General Certificate of Ordinary Level ('O' Level) among other five subjects. English is by standards the language used for applying for government jobs, conducting meetings and interviews. The use of indigenous languages is usually restricted to verbal interactions which are not as binding as the written proceedings and may be considered informal and unofficial. As a result, it is common to find

administrators in national district registration offices who cannot speak indigenous languages which would be understood by most of the locals, as long as they can speak English. Likewise, identity documents reflect an English bias as English texts take precedence in those documents which are supposedly multilingual like the passport. Unsurprisingly, the Zimbabwean passport bears orthographical errors and inconsistencies in the Ndebele text and this has never been an issue.

The political domain reflects fascinating contradictions regarding the dominance of English at the expense of the indigenous languages. As they claim to represent the aspirations of the people, it is not surprising that politicians have made language policy pronouncements which advocate for the use of indigenous languages in national affairs. Politicians have been vocal about the need to promote Shona and Ndebele to the status of English as well as the recognition of minority languages in the media and education. Yet when they deliver their speeches and manifestos during election campaigns, they mainly use English, and indigenous languages sparingly. Understandably, the main excuse for the use of English by politicians is the quest for a national audience, given that some politicians would be addressing audiences in areas which are geographically, culturally and linguistically remote from their regions of origin. The advocacy for indigenous languages by politicians would be more effective if they were themselves competent to address Zimbabweans in indigenous languages other than their own. In reality, the clamour for the status elevation of indigenous languages by politicians is mainly an effort to appeal to the popular nationalist feeling through which indigenous languages are associated with authenticity. Academics point to a lack of political will as the main reason for failure by the government to formulate and implement a comprehensive national language policy that promotes indigenous languages because politicians are not in unison on the matter (cf. Hadebe 1998, NLPAP 1998).

The language question has received the greatest attention from the education sector in terms of the language-in-education policy. While the NLPAP probed the language-in-education policy in order to determine "how a comprehensive national language policy should be formulated" (NLPAP 1998: 1), the Nziramasanga Commission did so in order to determine how learning, teaching and assessment could be made more effective (Nziramasanga et al 1999: 160). The opportunities provided by education in

implementing and cultivating a national language policy cannot be overemphasised. Accordingly, Zimbabwe's undocumented national language policy has always been inferred from the language-in-education policy and practices which revolved around the 1987 Education Act. This is shown in 1.1.2.4.

1.1.2.2 English and the media

In the media fraternity, English takes up the lion's share of the total language usage. Each big city has at least one government controlled daily newspaper such as *The Chronicle* in Bulawayo and *The Herald* in Harare. Alongside these main daily newspapers, with others being produced in the other towns, mainly two weekly newspapers, namely *Umthunywa* (The messenger) in Bulawayo and *Kwayedza* (It has dawned) in Harare, have been available in Ndebele and Shona respectively to satisfy the needs for news in the two major indigenous languages. Thus, content is very much compressed in the indigenous language print media. The same lack of balance exists in the electronic media, with only 30 minutes per day being shared between Ndebele and Shona news bulletins. A few local dramas in indigenous languages are also broadcast on television per week. When it comes to the radio, Zimbabwe has four government operated stations. Of those four, *National FM* and *Spot FM* broadcast exclusively in English. *Radio Zimbabwe* broadcasts in English, Shona and Ndebele while *National FM* supposedly broadcasts in the 'minority' languages (cf. Ndhlovu 2009). Clearly, English use remains outstandingly high compared to indigenous languages.

1.1.2.3 English and commerce

Bamgbose (1991: 74) once drew an interesting parallel between language and currency, arguing that the more a language buys in both the country and global economy, the more likely the policy-makers will assign it a dominant role and the more likely the citizens will aspire to acquire and use it. This analogue is more striking in the private sector which is essentially profit-making. Another related tag attached to certain languages in their preference over others is the so-called

operational efficiency (Bamgbose 1991, Fishman 1968). A trader or service provider in the private sector would prefer a language which ensures that one's business operates as much as possible both efficiently and profitably. In Zimbabwe, English has been a more valuable currency way before the South African Rand and the American Dollar were adopted to hit the final nail in the coffin of the Zimbabwean Dollar at the height of the country's economic meltdown. Similarly, while there have been lots of advocacy activities for the elevation of indigenous languages in Zimbabwe, English has continued to dominate the private sector. As in the public sector, employment as a storekeeper requires not only simple arithmetics and till operation skills for calculating the cost prices and change for customers, but also receptive competence in English so that one could read delivery notes and other relevant business documents. More pertinently, employment contracts and codes of conduct in such companies are primarily available in English, even for those workers who do not have to engage in formal communicative situations on behalf of the companies.

The illustrations drawn in this sub-subsection share a common context with language provisions in the areas of the public sector described above. English dominance is motivated by the status of the language in the country's undocumented national language policy. Indigenous languages are used sparingly and for convenience in cases whereby using English is only militated against by incompetence in it. It is within the language-in-education policy framework that the position that prescribes English as the official language may be noted, as it is also the case in the legal fraternity.

1.1.2.4 English in the educational language policy

The 1987 Education Act has for long been the major reference for academics regarding language planning and policy studies in Zimbabwe. This is befitting since there is no documented national language policy and also because the Education Act, including its amendments in 1990 and 2006, has remained the most explicit framework regarding language practices in education as well as in all the spheres of life. Most academics, language speakers and language oriented non-governmental

organisations have emphasised that the main flaw of the Act is its bias towards English. While this study performs the customary quoting of Section 62 of Part XI of the 1987 Act, it will take a different direction and have as its point of departure an observation that the Act does not explicate or help develop mechanisms which are necessary to facilitate English acquisition and usage as well as the development of other languages. The relevant excerpt, entitled 'Languages to be taught in schools', is reproduced below:

1. Subject to this section, the three main languages of this country, namely, Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught in all primary schools from the first grade as follows.
    a. Shona and English in all areas where the mother tongue of the majority of the residents is Shona; or
    b. Ndebele and English in all areas where the mother tongue of the majority of the residents is Ndebele.
2. Prior to the fourth grade, either of the two languages referred to in paragraph (a) or (b) of subsection (1) may be used as the medium of instruction, depending upon which language is more commonly spoken and understood better by the pupils.
3. From the fourth grade, English shall be the medium of instruction: Provided that Shona and/or Ndebele shall be taught as subjects on an equal-time-allocation basis as the English language.
4. In all areas where minority languages exist, the Minister may authorise the teaching of such languages in primary schools in addition to those specified in subsections (1), (2) and (3).

Firstly, it is important to concur with the other writers in observing that there is a glaring imbalance in terms of the allocation of roles to the Zimbabwean languages in the education sector, with English occupying the pinnacle in a hierarchical structure (Hadebe 1998, NLPAP 1998, Nziramasanga et al 1999). Accordingly, a lot of factors militate against the teaching and use of indigenous languages as provided for in the Act, way before the question of facilitating the implementation of the policy becomes an issue.

Secondly, while the teaching and use of other languages in the school curricula is conditional, the same may not be said of English. It is now used as a medium of instruction in the first grade and the recently introduced Grade 0. Many Zimbabweans would be familiar with games such as the one called the *bricklayer*. This game is one

of the several erstwhile mechanisms which have been central to the enforcement of English in the country's education system. A brick was kept in class and the first pupil to be heard speaking in an indigenous language would be punished by carrying that brick. This would go on throughout the day until the so-called bricklayer heard another pupil committing the offence of using an indigenous language instead of English, that pupil becoming the next bricklayer. The law applied in and outside the classroom. As a result, pupils who were not competent and confident in using English would opt to shut their mouths and become inactive in and outside the classroom. This example may be considered as a callous and humiliating mechanism of enforcing the acquisition of English.

There have never been serious ways of encouraging the use of indigenous languages in Zimbabwean schools. The insignificance of teaching an indigenous language alongside English at primary schools has been highlighted by the deployment of teachers who do not speak the relevant local language in some parts of the country. This does not only affect the learning of the relevant indigenous languages, but also the acquisition of English, given that the effects of the teacher's mother tongue on English teaching would not translate into the relevant role of the learners' mother tongue on the child's acquisition of the additional language. Not only do such learners have problems in acquiring the language subjects, namely the mother tongue and English, they are also likely to have problems in the content subjects such that by the time they get to the fourth grade where the English medium is official, they would be beyond redemption. This would be one scenario whereby English dominance in the language-in-education policy becomes detrimental to early childhood literacy, mindful of the fact that the school already poses a different learning environment from the child's home. This creates a non-conducive foundation for the general academic achievement of many learners.

Although English is assigned very important roles in early childhood literacy, there is no law which prohibits primary school learners from progressing to secondary education when they fail it. Of course there may be screening which will result in top achievers being allocated to first classes while under-performers are relegated to last classes. Besides that, pupils proceed to study more difficult content subjects in which indigenous languages have insignificant, if any, role due to the language-in-education

policy and their lack of development. Besides that, English is such an important subject at this level because its failure usually implies an end of an academic career regardless of whether the learner passes other subjects. For example, no student is enrolled for the General Certificate Advanced Level ('A' Level) studies in science subjects without passing English at 'O' Level. Enrolment would be equally difficult at vocational colleges, and absolutely impossible at universities, given that an English 'O' Level pass would later on be an essential requirement for employment in the public or private sector, as highlighted earlier on (cf. Nziramasanga et al 1999). Accordingly, the English subject records the highest number of candidates in both the June and November public school examinations, but disappointingly records one of the lowest pass rates when the results are published.

At this point it becomes important to indicate that the dominant role of English observed in both the public and the private sectors justifies its role in education as both a subject and a medium of instruction. The education system is meant to feed the public and the private sectors with trainees and professionals who are competent in this language, which is accredited with operational efficiency in all branches of government as well as in business. It is the language through which Zimbabwe interacts with the global village and demonstrates her capabilities in various fields of activities, including education. Among many African nationals, Zimbabweans are reputed for their good command of English. For example, while many black South African and non-South African students from the continent require English proficiency support at South African universities, Zimbabweans studying at the same institutions normally do not. Even for purposes of taking up petty jobs such as acting as waiters/waitresses in restaurants, Zimbabweans have had an advantage over other nationals in South Africa. However, such observations are skewed because they disregard many Zimbabweans who have sat for the English 'O' Level examination several times before getting the minimum credit or even giving up. It is from such observations of a low national pass rate, around 33% in English, as reported by ZIMSEC officials during the present research, as well as difficulties encountered by learners in other subjects in which English is the medium of instruction that other researchers have advocated for the use of indigenous languages. It is on the same basis that this research, seeking to depart from what may be regarded as simple

language activism, which tends to advocate for the use of the languages regardless of their levels of development, argues for an interrogation of remedial interventions in the acquisition, study and use of English in general and particularly the prospects of English lexicography.

1.2 Lexicographical history in Zimbabwe

It may never be possible to determine the first dictionary to be used in Zimbabwe, let alone the purpose for which it was used as well as when and by whom it was used. What may be assumed is that as they were coming from Europe which had established literary as well as lexicographical traditions, the missionaries might have equipped themselves with dictionaries, among other works of reference such as encyclopaedias and atlases. However, any of such reference works would remain the preserve of the missionaries since the local Africans were yet to become literate and conversant in European languages. What may effectively be analysed as elements of the history of Zimbabwean lexicography are those earliest dictionaries that were produced for use within the Zimbabwean borders. Such works may be traced back to over a century. They include the following:

- *Dictionary of the Tebele and Shona Languages* (Elliot 1897);
- *Matebele and Makalaka Vocabulary: Intended for the use of Prospectors and Farmers in Mashonaland* (Weale 1903);
- *Notes for a SiNdebele Dictionary and Grammar* (Elliot 1910);
- *A Shona Dictionary with an Outline of Shona Grammar* (Biehler 1950);
- *Standard Shona Dictionary: Compiled for the Southern Rhodesia Native Affairs Department* (Hannan 1959);
- *A Basic English-Shona Dictionary* (Dale 1975);
- *A Practical Ndebele Dictionary* (Pelling 1966).

The above dictionaries share a lot in common. Firstly, they were all compiled during the colonial era. Secondly, the dictionaries were inter-lingual, covering local languages as subject of lexicographical treatment and English as the metalanguage. Thirdly, the dictionaries were all compiled by foreigners of European origin. Finally, and most crucially, those dictionaries were compiled mainly for the use of the colonial settlers. They were meant to meet the communication needs experienced or perceived by foreigners in their pursuit of mining, agricultural, missionary, educational and political ventures. Weale's (1903) dictionary, according to its self-explanatory sub-title, was compiled to assist farmers and prospectors, none of whom were speakers of indigenous languages. All this is consistent with the remarks made by Gallardo (1980) regarding bilingual dictionaries. He writes:

> … only fully standardized languages have their lexicon organized in monolingual dictionaries. … In non-standardized language situations, dictionaries do not exist or, at best, are bilingual dictionaries, that is, compiled in function of a different language. … apart from being always bilingual, [the dictionaries] are usually not compiled by members of the speech community involved, who are not even able to use them (Gallardo 1980: 61).

While it could be claimed that the earliest bilingual dictionaries could be useful to both English speakers and speakers of indigenous languages with regards to either languages, their analysis would indicate that they had such strong religious, cultural, ideological as well linguistic and lexicographical biases that they would ultimately be more useful for the cause of the colonial master. As far as real communication and cognitive assistance was concerned, they were lacking at both macro- and microstructural levels (see 4.4.2). Accordingly, they may be characterised as externally-motivated lexicographical products because they were meant to address problems which were experienced or perceived by external members of the Zimbabwean linguistic communities (cf. Gouws 2005, Nkomo 2008).

In spite of the foregoing, those dictionaries could inevitably have been the first to be used by many Zimbabweans. Some of the dictionaries are still used today for translation purposes between English and indigenous languages.

At a certain point, monolingual English dictionaries produced in Britain entered the Zimbabwean lexicographical scene. As it will emerge in Chapter Seven, the latter

used to play an important role in the education sector during and after the colonial period. Zimbabweans used monolingual English dictionaries as they studied further in local and foreign institutions where English was, and still is, the dominant language of education. In that regard, the publication of the *Ventures Student's Dictionary* (VSD), a monolingual English dictionary for primary school learners, by College Press in 1984, becomes a very significant development in the history of Zimbabwean lexicography. However, as will be shown later in this dissertation, the significance of this dictionary is only limited to the fact that it was published in Zimbabwe, with no real Zimbabwean focus in its lexicographical processes (see, for example, 7.4.2.5). Otherwise it remains unknown to the learners and teachers who should be using it.

What remained missing from the Zimbabwean lexicographical scene are monolingual dictionaries in the indigenous languages. There were several efforts in compiling such dictionaries, however, without much success (Hadebe 2006: 59). This remained the case until the advent of the African Languages Lexical (ALLEX) Project in 1992. The ALLEX Project was a joint research endeavour between the University of Zimbabwe's Department of African Languages and Literature and partner-departments at two Scandinavian universities, the University of Oslo in Norway and the University of Gothenburg in Sweden. Its focus was on the lexicography of African languages, mainly Shona and Ndebele. It spanned over 15 years and ended in 2007, having been institutionalised into the African Languages Research Institute (ALRI) in 2001. At its various stages until the present, it has been hailed as "a milestone in the development of Zimbabwean languages" (Chabata 2007, 2008). To a very large extent, this is due credit since seven dictionaries were completed. These include:

- *Duramazwi reChiShona*, a Shona general monolingual dictionary (Chimhundu 1996);
- *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*, a Ndebele general monolingual dictionary (Hadebe et al 2001);
- *Duramazwi Guru reChiShona*, an advanced Shona monolingual dictionary (Chimhundu et al 2001);

- *Duramazwi reUtano neUrapi*, a Shona biomedical terms dictionary (Mpofu et al 2004);
- *Duramazwi remiMhanzi*, a Shona dictionary of music terms (Mheta 2005);
- *Isichazamazwi SezoMculo*, a Ndebele dictionary of music terms (Nkomo and Moyo 2006);
- *Duramazwi reDudziramutauro neUvaranomwe*, a Shona dictionary of linguistic and literary terms (Chimhundu and Chabata 2007).

What makes the ALLEX Project a success story as far as African lexicography is concerned is mainly the fact that it pioneered mother-tongue lexicography in Zimbabwe and within a reasonably short span became the success story of African lexicography. Furthermore, the end of the ALLEX Project has seen some of the Zimbabwean lexicographers taking their capabilities further in both lexicographical practice and research. The Cross Border Languages (CROBOL) Project which involves Zimbabwean and Mozambican languages is the brainchild of former ALLEX Project lexicographers. The present research is also inspired by the experience gained from the ALLEX Project, which did not only contribute to practical lexicography but also to theoretical lexicography in Zimbabwe. It is mainly a spin-off of the ALLEX Project that lexicography is now taught at several tertiary institutions in the country. Another Shona dictionary, Mawadza (2000), has also appeared outside but during the ALLEX Project era. All this indicates that the long barren spell which characterised Zimbabwe after the production of bilingual dictionaries during the colonial era may never be experienced again. There are Zimbabweans who are now either experienced or inspired to produce more dictionaries dealing with the country's languages. The published dictionaries may also make a significant impact in developing a dictionary culture within the Zimbabwean population. However, as this study will reveal, the mere existence and availability of dictionaries may not be enough to develop that culture which may result in dictionaries becoming the utility tools that they should be.

1.3 Statement of the problem

It is within the framework of English as Zimbabwe's official language, as indicated in 1.1, and also the framework of Zimbabwean lexicography, outlined in 1.2 above, that the problem statement for this study has been conceived. While English dominates the high status domains as an official language, Zimbabwean lexicography has so far not given commensurate attention to the lexicographically-relevant problems associated with English. It seems to be taken as a given that since there are plenty English dictionaries, produced especially in Britain and America, Zimbabweans have at their disposal adequate lexicographical tools for various activities involving English, unlike in the indigenous languages which have a relatively younger lexicographical history. This is problematic because the available English dictionaries are either produced for very specific users who are native speakers of the language or international users with heterogeneous characteristics and lexicographical needs. Some lexicographers working on English, such as Kirkpatrick (1985: 7) acknowledge that:

> It is impossible for any dictionary to satisfy the needs of everyone, wide-ranging and diverse as these needs are.

For the users, it would be difficult to determine which of the dictionaries are appropriate for certain tasks. A study of the available English dictionaries is, therefore, an important way of evaluating the extent to which the lexicographical needs of Zimbabweans regarding this language are provided for and satisfied. Then recommendations may be made regarding some dictionaries and the possibility of producing others in order to address the limitations associated with the present set-up.

1.4 Objectives

The main general endeavour of this study is to formulate a model for English lexicography in Zimbabwe and integrate that model into the country's current lexicographical scene. The following are some of its specific and primary objectives:

- To characterise Zimbabweans as learners of English and users of English dictionaries.

- To evaluate the extent to which English dictionaries satisfy the learner-needs of Zimbabweans.

- To propose a lexicographical model which provides solutions to the limitations of Zimbabwean lexicography and English lexicography with respect to Zimbabwean needs pertaining to English.

1.5 Scope of the study

This study ventures into an uncharted area as far as Zimbabwean lexicography is concerned. It deals with the lexicography of a language which has never been studied in Zimbabwe, or let alone practiced[1], or even seriously considered. The fact that the point of departure for the study is the official status of English in Zimbabwe indicates that lexicographical needs and the quest for satisfying them could be investigated in all the fields in which the language is used. This is not only undesirable but also not feasible given the necessary restrictions for research undertaken for the awarding of a degree qualification. While it is envisaged that the present research may have very significant impacts, not only on the prospects of English lexicography in Zimbabwe, but also towards the development of Zimbabwean lexicography as a whole, it is only effective to do so with rigour within a clearly and reasonably delineated scope.

It has been noted that while English has been firmly entrenched into the activities of a vast number of areas in both the public and the private sector, it is mainly through education that this dominance is cultivated. It is also in the education sector that the opportunities associated with English dominance are either nurtured or missed. Furthermore, it has now generally been established in metalexicographical research that students are among the most frequent users of dictionaries. Accordingly, it may be argued that dictionaries which support the acquisition and use of English may be more effective if their use is introduced in the education sector, thereby forming a firm foundation for dictionary use in other professional fields where English is the

[1] For the main reason supplied in 1.2 above, the VSD may not be considered as a product of Zimbabwean lexicographical practice. This dictionary is discussed further between Chapters Four and Seven.

dominant language. This is fitting since English is acquired mainly as an additional language at school, where skills are also nurtured for other professional fields. Accordingly, this study considers lexicography mainly to the extent that dictionaries may play an important role in supporting English acquisition through the education system in Zimbabwe. Once dictionaries gain prominence in the education sector, it is hoped that when Zimbabweans leave school, they will remain accustomed to dictionary use and use them whenever they encounter lexicographically-relevant problems in their various professions. However, a thorough investigation of dictionary use in various professions will render the scope of this study unnecessarily broad and unmanageable.

Since the present study is concerned with providing lexicographical solutions to the acquisition of English, which is done mainly through the education system, it will dwell mostly on the teaching/learning of English as a subject and its use as a medium of instruction from the primary school level to the secondary school level, ending with the fourth form at the end of which an 'O' Level certificate is issued. It is at 'O' Level where one's fate regarding English is sealed. On that account, the study falls within a branch of lexicography called pedagogical lexicography (Gouws 2004a, Hartmann and James 1998, Tarp 2010a, Welker 2008), with emphasis being on school dictionaries. However, within the broader scope of pedagogical lexicography, the study will be dealing learners' lexicography (Tarp 2004; 2004a; 2008; 2010a), with emphasis being placed on beginner learners and intermediate learners (cf. Section 4.1).

After 'O' Level, those learners who have passed English and who proceed to higher learning may be regarded as advanced learners. This study will give very little attention to such language learners as they have crossed the linguistic barriers which limit employment opportunities and further learning opportunities for those who have failed to pass English as a subject. Thus, given the low dictionary culture which exists in Zimbabwe and other African societies, and also the fact that English lexicography is so far regarded as the responsibility of lexicographers in those countries where English is a native language, the lexicographical intervention proposed in this study, which may actually include the compilation of dictionaries, has to prioritise certain dictionaries and plan them using metalexicographical criteria that would ensure that

the most critical stages of language learning are catered for. *Prioritisation, planning and the compilation of future English dictionaries in Zimbabwe* is the title under which the present research was originally registered. However, it was later on deemed necessary to motivate that lexicographical intervention that would result from the priorisation, planning and compilation processes. The original title did not tell the entire story as it implied that English dictionaries have already been, or are currently being compiled in Zimbabwe. Yet they are not even optimally used.

1.6 Justification

The dominant role of English in the country's language policy or practices necessitates that many Zimbabweans learn and use it with reasonable proficiency. In this case reasonable proficiency may be taken as an 'O' Level pass in the language subject which is a compulsory requirement for one to progress to higher academic levels or to take up employment in the private and the public sectors. The importance of any study which deals with the teaching, learning and use of such a language, with the view of giving insights which may bring improvements, may never be overemphasised. What would be required is a convincing demonstration of how such important contributions are intended.

The role of dictionaries in the learning, teaching and use of a language has long been accepted from both the perspectives of lexicography and language teaching (Ilson 1985, Gouws 2004a, Stein 2002, Tarp 2004; 2004a, Wright 2008). In Zimbabwe, such a role has inspired the development of mother-tongue lexicography, a development that has given hope regarding the teaching and use of indigenous languages (Chabata 2007; 2008, Masuku and Ndhlovu 2007). However, this study finds amiss the fact that metalexicography in Zimbabwe and other African countries, the exception being South Africa (Gouws 1999), has not given the slightest attention to English lexicography or dictionaries, seeing that it is probably in this language that many people need the greatest amount of assistance. Since no literature exists regarding the role of dictionaries in the acquisition of English in Zimbabwe, it could be safely argued that so far the role of dictionaries in this regard is either not recognised or taken for granted. It may be claimed that until now, the following has not really been

known regarding the use of dictionaries in the acquisition of English:

- Whether dictionaries are used in the teaching/learning of English;
- Whether dictionaries which can support the teaching/learning of English are available in the market;
- Whether the dictionaries that are either used or available for use are appropriate for the learners.

The point is that dictionary use in connection with problems emanating from the use of English has been assumed. Both the availability and user-friendliness of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe has never been researched. This is the huge gap of knowledge which this study hopes to fill. The contribution of this study is envisaged to be both of a theoretical and practical nature. The study hopes to generate knowledge that would inspire future research activities in the area of English lexicography in African societies and beyond. Further to this, the study hopes to give some insights which may have practical relevance regarding both dictionary use and lexicographical practice in such countries. Among the available dictionaries, the study hopes to identify those that may provide the relevant assistance for specific purposes as well as their limitations. This is hoped to be a contribution to the teaching of English, among other activities in which the language plays an important role.

Ultimately, and regarding lexicographical practice, this study hopes to explore the prospects of English lexicography in Zimbabwe, based on the needs, priorities and other factors. A model for English lexicography is needed that may be integrated into the country's lexicographical scene. Thus, a needs-based approach which uses prioritisation in dealing with other factors such as the commercial dimension of lexicography may see some innovations being made on the available dictionaries to address some of the needs experienced by Zimbabweans learning and using English as the only official language in the country.

Learners' lexicography has been identified as the most appropriate branch within which this study may be located because English lexicography is seen as a form of supporting the learning, studying and use of the language which is primarily learned at school. It should be noted that the term *foreign language* is cautiously avoided

except in direct quotations since English is an official language in Zimbabwe. It is, to a large extent, the general attitude that English is a foreign language in Zimbabwe that has accentuated problems related to learning, studying and use of the language as some Zimbabweans blame its foreignness as the cause of problems instead of developing mechanisms of dealing with the problems (cf. Magwa 2006; 2008). This study considers lexicography as potentially one means of addressing some of the problems. McArthur (1986: ix) has aptly argued that lexicography has evolved over time to address:

> ... tensions (religious, cultural, social, educational) that have accumulated over centuries as our species has struggled to live less brutishly, think more wisely, amass more knowledge, and make more and more information available to more and more people for more and more purposes.

The role of English in African countries, Zimbabwe included, is at the centre of social, educational, political and economic tensions pertaining to access. Indeed, appropriate and user-friendly dictionaries can mitigate these tensions. The challenge of studying English dictionaries as a non-native speaker is hinted at by Béjoint (2000: 2). However, it is worthwhile as long as it is done from the view of the user of such dictionaries.

1.7 Literature review

Literature on lexicography now abounds. This was not the case some four decades ago. Then, it could be possible to survey almost everything that was written on dictionaries, which normally appeared as chapters or even a few statements in publications of linguistics. Now there are many books, monographs, journals, dictionaries and a three-volume encyclopedia[2] specifically dealing with lexicographical issues in general or in the specific countries and languages. Literature review for a study such as this one now has to carefully identify from such an

[2] At the time of writing, a supplementary volume of this encyclopedia which deals with recent developments in lexicography, with special focus on computational linguistics, is being finalised under the editorship of R. H. Gouws, U. Heid, W. Schweickard and H. E. Wiegand. The original three volumes were edited by Hausmann et al (1989-1991).

abundance of works only those that significantly inform that particular study. In some cases, given time and space limitations, the selection of literature for review can only be adequate in as much as it convincingly demonstrates an existing gap which the study seeks to fill.

The present research is on the lexicography of a language on which much has been written. It is also befitting that a lot of literature exists in this area, given that the language itself, more than any other, has grown into a global language. Evidence from literature suggests that lexicography has played an enormous part for this to become a reality (cf. Béjoint 2000, Benson 2001, Landau 1989). More than in any other language, dictionaries have been produced in English with the conscious objective of developing this language, and those dictionaries have been spread all over the world in order to keep abreast with its development as a global language. Accordingly, all the literature that has been produced to record the history of English lexicography, pre-dating 1747 when Samuel Johnson started to work on his *Dictionary of the English Language*, to the compilation and use of English dictionaries in countries other than Britain, would be important but it is not reducible to a mere section of a dissertation that this literature review is meant to be.

There is also a need to deal with the literature that has been produced to account for the development of lexicography as a discipline, i.e. attempts at developing lexicographical theories, most of which have been made outside the scope of English lexicography. Clearly, this section cannot be a treatise of all the relevant metalexicographical literature, but a summary which seeks to indicate the rationale for the present study. Of critical importance in this summary will be a presentation of the state of the art as far as English lexicography is concerned. This includes the production and use of English dictionaries in Britain, America and other English-speaking countries, bearing in mind the non-native learner of English as the potential dictionary user. While this includes learners' lexicography as is characterised by existing English learners' dictionaries produced mainly in Britain for the entire non-native English-speaking world, the present study goes further to consider the need for some of the countries, such as Zimbabwe, to produce their own dictionaries to support the acquisition of the language.

There is no question regarding the historical significance of the *Dictionary of the English Language*. Consequently, Samuel Johnson's (1747) plan of this dictionary, the well-known *The Plan of a Dictionary of the English Language*, becomes the point of departure for this literature review. The relevance of the plan is derived from the significance of that dictionary, which to a large extent influenced the monumental *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED). English lexicography cannot be effectively investigated in historical terms without reference to Johnson's (1747) dictionary plan in which he made assertions which for a long time continue to dominate not only English lexicography but lexicography in general[3]. Chief among them was his intent "to preserve the purity and ascertain the meaning of our English idiom" (Johnson 1747: 4). Through the dictionary, Dr. Johnson aspired "to fix the English language" (Johnson 1747: 11). From such a purist stance, it is easy to decipher a strong spirit of British nationalism which would guide his lemma selection for that dictionary, especially the reliance on the works of famous and 'polite' writers, as well as the indication of meaning, orthographical representation and guidance on pronunciation. The fact that Johnson (1747: 5-6) draws parallels between his work and the works of French academicians indicates his determination to produce an English dictionary for British users. As this section shall show shortly, from the metalexicographical works of other authors that are also reviewed here, the ideas espoused in Johnson's (1747) dictionary plan have, in a certain way, influenced the development of English lexicography in and outside Britain. The present study seeks to further show that the very same arguments for the development of English lexicography in America apply in a certain way to the proposed lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe.

In a textbook that has been repeatedly quoted for the implications of its title, i.e. *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography*, on the academic and disciplinary status of lexicography (cf. Béjoint 2010: 381, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 3, Tarp 2010: 253), Landau (1984, 1989, 2001) provides a lucid account of the development of English lexicography in Britain and America. It has to be stressed that although the

[3] As recent as 2009, the XVII Biennial Meeting of the Dictionary Society of North America (26-30 May 2009) at the Indiana University, Bloomington, had a session in which papers were presented to commemorate the tercentenary of Samuel Johnson's birth. Among other issues, the papers discussed Johnson's contributions to lexicography (cf. Gouws and Potgieter 2010).

title suggests that the book is about dictionary-making in the same mould as Zgusta (1971), the book is essentially on English lexicography. An excerpt from the *Language* review on the 1989 edition is quite right regarding this, as is the *Booklist* review which recommends the book for English but not all language teachers. That is not surprising, given that the author is himself an English lexicographer. As an American English lexicographer, to be specific, the author would inevitably locate the development of English lexicography within a broader context that begins with Noah Webster's ground-breaking dictionary, itself driven by an American nationalistic spirit which aspired to break away from Anglo-centred English lexicography. From Landau's book, the centre of English lexicography is expanded to project an Anglo-American outlook. He is, however, aware that the interest in English lexicography as well as its commercial success has developed thanks to the development of "English as an international language" (Landau 1989: ix). While that is indisputable, the success of English lexicography on the peripheries of its Anglo-American centre has been left outside the scope of his book. This study goes beyond metalexicographical works such as the one under review to consider extra lexicographical steps that may be taken to support the acquisition and use of English as an additional language in Zimbabwe.

Perhaps a more up-to-date account of English lexicography from a historical perspective is Béjoint (2010). This work, entitled *The Lexicography of English*, is an updated version of his earlier books, namely *Tradition and Innovation in English Dictionaries* (Béjoint 1994) and *Modern Lexicography* (Béjoint 2000). As in the works of Landau (1984; 1989; 2001), the fact that the greatest attention is dedicated to English lexicography, even in a work that is entitled *Modern Lexicography*, is instructive of the position occupied by English dictionaries in world lexicography today. It is, thus, not surprising that the latest edition was published under a more explicit title, *The Lexicography of English*. While the author does not lose sight of Britain, dating back to Johnson and before, as the cradle of English lexicography, he follows it through America, where the English dictionary embodied an equal, if not extra, measure of nationalism as in Britain, to other English-speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, etc. That way, a larger picture is given compared to the one that is portrayed by Landau. Such an account is significant in that

it partly inspires an idea of English lexicography in Zimbabwe. However, it is not the nationalistic spirit *per se* which is central to the present research, since that would only account for a prospective dictionary of Zimbabwean English. As it will emerge, such a dictionary is even marginal to the proposed model. The present research begins and goes further than Béjoint's books in that it considers English dictionaries with respect to additional language learners, of which only a brief mention is made by the author under review in a subsection dealing with types of dictionaries. A lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe transcends the type of dictionary that is of primary focus to Béjoint, i.e. the monolingual general-purpose dictionary, which is normally produced for native-language speakers and used by advanced language learners.

There are many other works by metalexicographers who are native English speakers such as Osselton (1983; 1990) which tell the same history of English lexicography or its parts but in more or less the same way. Béjoint (2000: 2) has this to say about them and their works:

> Metalexicography is still very much contained within national boundaries: many specialists tend to restrict their reading to their native language, and there is a certain amount of provincialism even for metalexicographers who are native English speakers.

However, there is still the hidden history which is only told clearly by Lynda Mugglestone in her book *Lost for Words: The Hidden History of the Oxford English Dictionary* (Mugglestone 2005). Her account is an exposé par excellence especially for those who are on the peripheries of English lexicography. More than anything else, Mugglestone (2005) reveals how some of the Johnsonian prejudices have continued to prevail even in post-Johnsonian English lexicography. Examples of the ridiculing, 'rubbishing' and ultimate dismissal of certain words and senses of meaning from the first volume of the OED are remarkable. Although the OED is not the primary focus of the present study, it will be shown that English lexicography has continued to be driven by some of the hard-line purist principles so that users on the peripheries end up not getting the best of what lexicography has to offer with regard to the language which many, as in Zimbabwe, have to use as the official language.

Benson (2001), in his book entitled *Ethnocentrism and the English Dictionary* may be used to counter possible arguments against the claim that has been made regarding the significance of the book that was reviewed in the previous paragraph. It may be argued that although being a recent publication, Mugglestone (2005) deals with the first edition of the OED, therefore the exposed prejudices are a feature of the old practices still under Johnson's influence. However, Benson (2001) describes the representation of China in a 1989 edition of the OED as "a case of ethnocentrism in action" (Benson 2001: i). He observes that "quotations referring to China in the OED2 contribute towards the representation of China as a peripheral object of Western knowledge" (Benson 2001: 204). The author finds this problematic, not least because the Chinese learn and use the language, but also because China contributes to the development of English as an international language. A similar case has been made by Weiner (1999) with regard to the missing or inadequately captured African dimension in the OED. As will be shown in the present dissertation, it is on this basis that motivations are being made by some Zimbabweans for a dictionary of Zimbabwean English (see Appendix 2) along the same line of argument for the *Dictionary of South African English based on Historical Principles* (cf. Gouws 1999) or Australian lexicography (cf. Delbridge and Butler 1999). However, while the present writer also observes with regret certain ethnocentric features in English dictionaries, the focus of this study is on a model for a lexicographical support with the acquisition and use of English in the country, not just the mere representation of the contributions that Zimbabweans might have made towards the development of English as an international language or a language that is also spoken in Zimbabwe.

The literature review for this study will be incomplete if it ended with the discussion of works dealing with general-purpose English dictionaries. So incomplete will be the history of English lexicography as it has been popularly recorded. Thus, we consider the development of learners' dictionaries as part of English lexicography, an area that has been covered mainly by scholars such as Cowie (1983; 1987; 1999; 2002), Rundell (1998) and Stein (2002). These works are more insightful than Béjoint (1994; 2000; 2010) or Landau (1984; 1989; 2001) when it comes to this dictionary genre. Some of these works will take the reader through the studious enthusiasm and lexicographical innovations of Albert S. Hornby, Michael West and Harold Palmer,

the pioneering figures of English learners' lexicography, right to the contemporary practices. While all that is useful background information for the present study, these contemporary metalexicographers, perhaps with the exception of Stein (2002), tend to focus on the practical side of learners' lexicography. The language learner is a distant figure who is simply known by most contemporary practicing lexicographers and metalexicographers as a non-native English speaker. Even in cases where the learner is considered, the bias tends to be on those who learn English mainly in Britain or America or for use in those countries. As argued previously, what happens when these products of Anglo-American centred practice get to the peripheries has been of little concern. The present study will show that English learners' dictionaries are somewhat limited as far as assisting the users of the language in their own geographical areas mainly because they do not always come in complete sets. Arguably because of their stature as evidence of rigorous shifts that have been put by the lexicographers, advanced learners' dictionaries, are aggressively marketed and made available to all the peripheries of the English-speaking world. Yet the most needed dictionaries for beginners and intermediate learners who need more assistance remain remote.

For those who believe in lexicographical theory, it may be argued that besides ethnocentrism of the English dictionary (Benson 2001), the limitations of English lexicography derive from the anti-theoretical stance that English lexicographers have adopted. Prominent English lexicographers such as B. S. Atkins and Michael Rundell, as well as authoritative commentators on English lexicography such as Henri Béjoint (cf. Atkins and Rundell 2008, Béjoint 2010), do not believe in lexicographical theory (see 3.1). This has created a metalexicographical division between such scholars as Sven Tarp and others who have pledged significant portions of their academic careers towards the development of metalexicographical theory (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003, Tarp 2000; 2004; 2008; 2010). Of particular significance to this study is Tarp (2008) who formulates a general theory of learners' lexicography. The present study is underpinned by this metalexicographical effort and others within the broader framework of the lexicographical function theory. There is no real need for indicating here the extent of those theoretical applications to the present work, since this is the gist of the discussion of Chapter Three. Suffice to mention, though, that no wholesale adoption of any ideas found in the literature is made because Zimbabwe presents a

new situation which has not been previously covered in metalexicography pertaining to English dictionaries.

There is hardly any literature produced by Zimbabwean scholars in the area of lexicography that is directly relevant to this work, except those that will be cited in the appropriate sections of the dissertation. Accordingly, this section may be concluded by pointing at the inspiration that this work draws from the final book chapter by Bailey (1987) in R. W. Bailey (Ed.) (1987). In the book *Dictionaries of English*, the contributors consider prospects for the recording of their language through dictionary-making. After an introduction by the editor, seven chapters take the reader through the taxing lexicographical efforts of ensuring that the usage of English is traced and captured as representatively as possible in dictionaries. Then Hartmann (1987) investigates the critical user perspective in English dictionaries. Nevertheless, Bailey (1987) observes some 'discontiguities' in English lexicography. The present research needs to be seen from that perspective, having hopefully identified them in the preceding paragraphs and undertaking to predicate the proposed model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe on those 'discontiguities'. While having English as an official language, being on the periphery for Zimbabweans implies that not only is English acquired as an additional language. Its acquisition and use is also still seen as the responsibility of mainly those in Britain and America and, consequently, very little, if any, research is directed to it. As far as lexicography is concerned, externally-produced dictionaries are used, but their user-friendliness is taken for granted. No consideration has been taken to study the use of those dictionaries in Zimbabwe, not to mention the production of certain types which the Anglo-American centre of English lexicography would not bother to produce for the foreign market. Bailey (1987: 146-147) acknowledges the inspiration of Richard Chenevix Trench who in 1857 delivered a lecture entitled 'On Some Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries'. He believes that having identified the omissions and errors in the then existing dictionaries, Trench would be astonished by the breadth and richness of the reference works which now exist in abundance in English lexicography. Despite those achievements of English lexicography, Bailey (1987: 136) observes the discontiguities and argues that:

> Our energies as planners of the future of English lexicography ought to be directed toward connecting the discontiguous parts by filling in the intervals and by linking the remote regions with the central ones.

Whereas Bailey and his colleagues who contributed in Bailey (1987a) were concerned with their language, the present writer is concerned with this language which was imposed and has now been accepted in spite of the socio-economic problems that are associated with it in a remote country from where Bailey and his colleagues were writing. Thus, while English lexicographers in Britain would aspire to record their language and keep in touch with it even in the peripheral areas of its influence, the present work aspires to domesticate the language that Zimbabweans currently have no choice but to acquire and use as profitably as possible.

1.8 Conclusion and outline of the dissertation

Having provided a general introduction in this chapter, the dissertation will outline the methodology that has been adopted to undertake the present study in Chapter Two. This will be followed by an account of the theoretical framework which informs the study in Chapter Three. Chapter Four then presents the Zimbabwean user perspective with special regard to English dictionaries. That chapter is meant to provide a contextual framework for the subsequent chapters. The next chapter considers mainly the lexicographical needs of English beginners in Zimbabwe, discussing features of existing dictionaries that have been compiled for users with similar characteristics and indicating how similar dictionaries may be useful for Zimbabwean English beginners. A similar approach is adopted in Chapter Six where focus is on the intermediate English-learner needs in Zimbabwe. Based on the previous chapters, Chapter Seven then proposes a lexicographical model for an intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. The chapter does not only present the model, it also considers its implications when it comes to implementation, drawing closely from the testing of the model that was conducted in the country. The dissertation ends with Chapter Eight where conclusions are made regarding the lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.0 Introduction

Dictionary research (Hartmann 2001, Hartmann and James 1998) is one of the terms that have been used to refer to studies such as the present one. According to Hartmann and James (1998: 53), dictionary research refers to the "theoretical aspects of lexicography", which are "concerned with the academic study of such topics as the nature, history, criticism, typology and use of dictionaries and other reference works". The main branches of dictionary research are also referred to as the "perspectives on the theory of lexicography" by Hartmann (2001: xi). The importance of dictionary research today is evidenced by the number of publications based on the results of such research. Welker (2010) has summarised and indexed 320 of these publications.

Another term that has been used recently is *lexicographical user research* (Tarp 2009). This term obviously shows the central position that lexicography now reserves for the dictionary user who, as Tarp (2009: 276) shows, was previously referred to as the *well-known unknown* by Wiegand (1977) and the *unknown creature* by Neubauer (1987). The development that saw the user gaining prominence in lexicography is now popularly known as the user perspective (cf. Hartmann 1989; 2001). Notwithstanding the significance of this development in both lexicographical practice and research, Tarp (2009) warns of the importance of distinguishing between lexicographically-relevant and lexicographically-irrelevant research. This serves to emphasise not only the significance of certain topics for lexicographical research, but also methodology in the investigation of the obviously relevant topics. As far as methodology is concerned, Hartmann (2001: 121) makes the observation that:

> … dictionary research is not characterised by a single, crucial method, but by a multiplicity of investigative styles, most of which have been adapted from more established disciplines such as philology, the social sciences and the experimental sciences.

This situation arises from the interdisciplinary nature of lexicography (see 3.2.1.2). Based on the advantages and disadvantages of individual research techniques, which have been acknowledged in the social sciences, Tarp (2009; 2010) also concurs with

the combination of various methods within an individual lexicographical research project. This may logically limit the severity of the disadvantages of the individual techniques while maximising on their advantages. However, it would remain vital for the methodology to be connected to a lexicographical theoretical framework that facilitates an effective analysis of the results (Tarp 2009: 293). That way, while adopting certain research methods from the natural and social sciences, lexicography "contains independent contributions to methodology" (Tarp 2008: 6).

The thesis of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe may be developed within different perspectives of dictionary research. It follows, therefore, that no single research method would be sufficient to ensure that the findings become "relevant, reliable and replicable" (Hartmann 2001: 120). In order to investigate the various factors that may have a bearing on the need, possibility and feasibility of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe, different research methods and techniques were used, with each contributing towards the achievement of at least one research objective. The next sections and subsections give accounts of the procedures that were undertaken, indicating the respective knowledge that was meant to be generated in line with the main endeavour of the entire research enterprise.

2.1 Establishing a user profile

Embracing the user perspective as an integral element in modern-day lexicography, this research took as its first step the establishing of a user profile of Zimbabweans as English learners and, therefore, potential users of English dictionaries. While user profiles have now become central to lexicographical planning, research and dictionary criticism (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp 1995; 2003, Tarp 2000; 2004; 2004a; 2008; Gouws and Prinsloo 2005), drawing them has never been explicitly identified as part of lexicographical research methodology. Rather, user profiles have been mainly seen as part of theory, especially the lexicographical function theory. However, the present study takes the cue from a statement made towards the end of Tarp (2008):

> … a series of steps have been taken while creating a theory leading towards a methodology which can be developed to advantage in future

> for use in systematic dictionary research, historical dictionary research, dictionary criticism and research into dictionary usage … (Tarp 2008: 281).

The steps alluded to in the above quotation include the creation of user profiles or analyses of lexicographical needs of users belonging to specific user categories. Therefore, the establishment of user profiles and their use in lexicographical research may be identified as some of the independent contributions of lexicography to research methodology. Rather than viewing them as a mere theoretical procedure, it may be argued that the development of the lexicographical function theory included that of user profiles as a methodological procedure.

In the present research, it is realised that any model of lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe would be abstract as long as it is not based on an analysis of Zimbabweans as English learners. Accordingly, the acquisition of English through the education system and the use of the language in various domains, including education, provided a context within which Zimbabwean English learners were characterised. While language-learner categories *beginners*, *intermediate learners* and *advanced learners* already exist with their origins in language acquisition studies and further reconceptualisation in lexicography, it was first of all important to identify the Zimbabweans who belong in each category. This was important despite convincing challenges of the traditional meanings of these concepts in language acquisition studies and their modification for lexicographical purposes by Tarp (2004a; 2008). Applying Tarp's (2004a; 2008) criteria within the context of English acquisition and use in Zimbabwe, the present study was able to characterise Zimbabweans as English learners (see 4.1), which is one of the primary goals of the research. However, this was not an end in itself. The characterisation of Zimbabwean English learners would become a major step in determining their lexicographical needs, based on their user situations, especially in Chapter Five and Chapter Six. Furthermore, it was central to the delimitation of the scope of the study, i.e. limiting attention on the lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean English advanced learners (see 1.5) whose problems are no longer as severe as those of beginners and intermediate learners. If Tarp's (2004a; 2008) criteria were to be used in a country with a different language policy or language-in-education policy, the user categories and the resultant metalexicographical argument would also be different.

2.2 A questionnaire survey

The available literature on lexicography indicates that questionnaire surveys are the most commonly used method to investigate the usage of dictionaries. A number of lexicographical research projects summarised and indexed by Welker (2010) were based on questionnaire surveys. Welker (2010) and other scholars who have written on dictionary research have critically considered the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires, most of which have been considered in other areas of research. The present researcher was, therefore, aware of the limitations of this data collection instrument before opting for it, so it was after a serious consideration that, with great caution, the questionnaire still remained the best technique for obtaining the kinds of data that were targeted.

In the present research, the questionnaire survey was used to establish the knowledge about dictionaries among Zimbabweans, especially those falling within the English advanced learner category. Among other things, the questionnaire sought to establish the following:

- The respondents' understanding of what a dictionary is;
- The respondents' perceptions about the value of dictionaries;
- The respondents' knowledge of dictionary types and specific titles;
- Whether the respondents use dictionaries or not;
- The ownership of dictionaries among the respondents;
- The challenges faced by the respondents when consulting dictionaries and the nature of challenges;
- The positive and/or negative outcomes of dictionary consultation;
- The respondents' views on the prospects of English lexicographical practice in Zimbabwe.

There were other follow-up questions which were included in anticipation of certain responses (see Appendix 1 for the full questionnaire). The questionnaire was uploaded on the University of Cape Town (UCT)'s online learning environment called *Vula*, which means "open". This online learning environment has a survey site where students and members of staff can conduct online research surveys. During the time of the survey, the present researcher was working on a multilingual concept literacy

glossary project as a lexicographer under the auspices of UCT's Multilingualism Education Project. Using email and Facebook, the targeted respondents, mainly colleagues and friends, were supplied with the link to the survey and requested to participate. They were also asked to share the link with their colleagues and friends.

The survey ran for the duration of one and a half month, i.e. from 5 April to 21 May 2010. During this period, it was possible to see the number of responses that have been received, but the identity of the respondents could only be accessed from the survey report which could not be generated until the survey had closed. So while it was still easy to remind friends and colleagues about the survey, there was danger of pressing the wrong buttons. Following-up questionnaires is always a daunting process where it is expected to find them still uncompleted even on an arranged date, but forgetting that a particular respondent has completed the questionnaire and making a second call naturally irritates the respondent. This was perhaps the worst challenge of the survey.

Yet the number of responses increased at a discouraging rate for an anxious researcher, especially during the last two weeks. As it can be seen from the survey report (see Appendix 2), 46 responses were obtained. However, not all of them were completed online. There are eleven respondents, based in Zimbabwe, who had problems with internet access. They requested a Microsoft Word version of the questionnaire. After completing it, they emailed it to my research assistant who would then enter the data on the online version. However, there was no exact match in the number of options provided by the Microsoft Word version and the online facility for certain questions, which presented slight challenges when it came to analysing the results.

As each participant uploaded the completed questionnaire on the survey site, the questionnaire was automatically assigned an alphabetical letter. For instance, A was assigned to the first uploaded questionnaire while Z was assigned to the twenty-sixth one. Then Ai would be assigned to the twenty-seventh completed questionnaire while Bi was assigned to next one, etc. As separate files on the online survey site, the questionnaires were therefore saved using those automatically generated codes. The same codes were then prefixed with P for 'participant' and used in Chapter Four

instead of the names that were given by the participants, which also appeared in the automatically generated survey report. So the code PD in Chapter Four means Participant D.

When the survey closed, a survey report was generated in both Excel and PDF formats (see Appendix 2 for the PDF version). This provided three possible options of analysing the completed questionnaires. Firstly, the questionnaires could be analysed individually when they were opened online. Then they could be analysed in an Excel file which provided all the data from each respondent in one row. Finally, they could also be analysed in the PDF file which automatically grouped together responses to the same questions from all the respondents and provided statistical data about them in percentages. All this enhanced the analysis, but the problems with certain questions are discussed in Chapter Four, where most of the data from the survey was used.

As it can be seen from Appendix 1, the questionnaire contained typical questions that have been asked in dictionary research questionnaire surveys (cf. Hartmann 2001, Tarp 2009, Welker 2010, Beyer and Faul 2010). Notwithstanding the cited limitations of the data obtained with respect to such questions, Welker (2010: 14) argues that:

> … in countries or situations in which nothing is known about dictionary use questionnaires are still useful – provided they avoid certain pitfalls.

In the case of the present research, the main advantage of the questionnaire survey has been that it facilitated a lexicographical research survey covering a relatively significant number of Zimbabweans who currently reside in different parts of the world. It would have been more time-consuming to interview all those people or to get the solicited data using other techniques. This may also be said of the recently reported survey by Beyer and Faul (2010). Of course, 46 respondents do not compare favourably with the numbers covered by other questionnaire surveys such as the one reported by Beyer and Faul (2010) and others discussed in Hartmann (2001), Tarp (2009) and Welker (2010). Neither does this number come close to being representative of Zimbabweans who find themselves in different situations which may require dictionary use due to the dominant role of the language except perhaps in terms of their professional backgrounds. However, it still compares fairly well with the surveys reported in quantitative terms by Tomaszczyk (1989), Mackintosh (1998), Varantola (1998) and Nord (2002). The percentages in such studies may rightfully be

questioned based on the sample sizes, but Tarp (2009) is still able to put to good use the data associated with those questionable percentages. What this means is that the figures and percentages should not be seen as an end in themselves. Instead, they need to be seen from the view of what can be deduced from them in terms of existing practice or need that is lexicographically relevant. This applies to this research. The questionnaire survey indeed provided extremely insightful information about the general dictionary culture in Zimbabwe, although this had to be supplemented by other methods and techniques.

2.3 Focus group discussions with teachers and learners

Having identified schools as the usual fields where dictionaries become handy, focus group discussions with teachers and learners were conducted to obtain a picture of the dictionary situation among these potential dictionary users. This was done at the preliminary stage of the research, when the research assistant visited schools with the following specific aims to be investigated:

- dictionary availability as part of the school property;
- dictionary ownership among teachers and learners;
- the types and titles of dictionaries that are either available at schools or owned by the teachers and learners;
- teachers' policies regarding dictionary use in their teaching activities as well as the learning activities of their learners;
- learners' practices regarding dictionary use in their learning activities.

To that end, a research guide was developed for the research assistant. Six schools in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe's second largest and capital city, were visited. Among these, three are primary schools while the other three are high schools and two of them, a primary school and a high school, are former Group A schools located near the city centre and attended mainly by children from affluent families[4] while the rest are

[4] The former Group A schools were included mainly for comparative purposes. Pass-rate is generally high for all the subjects, including English. Any talk of a need for intervention under those circumstances becomes irrelevant. Thus, further discussion of these schools will be limited in the context of this research, as it was discovered that dictionaries are on the requirements list once a

township schools. As intimated earlier, this exercise was meant to generate a preliminary picture and its results, together with that of the questionnaire survey outline in 2.2 above, contributed to the discussion of the user perspective in Zimbabwe in Chapter Four. However, a more thorough exercise conducted by the researcher himself at the final stages of the research would lead to a follow-up to those findings despite the fact that not exactly the same schools[5] were used when the proposed model was tested (see 2.7).

2.4 Bookshop enquiries

The preliminary fieldwork that was conducted by the research assistant also included visiting bookshops to assess the availability of dictionaries on the Zimbabwean market. Besides checking on the shelves, the research assistant was advised beforehand to request bookshop catalogues and to discuss with sales staff or managers the prevailing dictionary situation, focusing mainly on the unavailability of dictionaries, the availability of specific titles as well as the demand of dictionaries by the public. This was done in Harare and Bulawayo, the largest cities of Zimbabwe in June 2009. Matopo Book Centre, Mambo Bookshop, both in Bulawayo, and Kingstones in Harare and Bulawayo were covered. These are the country's main educational booksellers. A follow-up on the same issues was made between June and July 2011 when the researcher went for the final phase of the research. The findings of this exercise are reported in Chapter Four.

2.5 Assessing the dictionary inventory at the University of Zimbabwe's library

Dictionary availability at the University of Zimbabwe (UZ)'s library was assessed. This was firstly done from South Africa where the researcher has been mainly based through the online catalogue search and also by making a follow-up visit to the library

child is offered a place at such a school. In addition to ZIMSEC examinations, Cambridge examinations are still being used for assessment in these schools.

[5] Only three schools were covered by both the research assistant and the present researcher. These are the former Group A schools and one township high school.

later on during the course of the study. Notwithstanding that the catalogue was not up-to-date, a suspicion raised by the observation that the catalogue only contained old editions of popular English dictionaries, it was possible to identify those that are available for use by the university students and staff as well as the general public, including learners from the surrounding schools who are able to join the library. Questions which emerged from the online catalogue survey would then be addressed when the researcher visited the library, assessed the reference section and made enquiries from the librarians. The queries pertained to the updating of the library catalogue as well as the acquisition of dictionaries and books. On the whole, this exercise was insightful and could be replicated with other public libraries and those of other universities. However, the UZ library was chosen mainly because of the fact that the university is the oldest institution of higher learning and its library remains the biggest in the country.

2.6 Primary sources

While dictionaries are the usual primary sources of data that is discussed in lexicographical research studies such as the present one, their obvious position has motivated their discussion in 2.8 below and their exclusion here. In this section, the study of language policy documents, school English syllabi, textbooks and examination question papers is discussed. All of these documents were relevant for the genesis and development of the lexicographical debate that constitutes this study. They all provide a framework of situations in which certain problems regarding English may arise and may be solved through the consultation of dictionaries. The need for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in the country is, therefore, located in the context of such situations. Throughout the education system, the English syllabi make reference to dictionaries. From this, Zimbabwe's policy on dictionary use in the school system is deduced and subjected to a rigorous critique. A case for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe would be somewhat baseless without such primary sources.

2.7 Model testing workshops

One major outcome of the deductive analysis of the data that was generated from the activities and documents described in the foregoing (see 2.9) was the formulation of a draft model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe (see Appendix 3). The testing of this draft model was the main activity of the final fieldwork that was conducted during the month of June and the first half of July 2011. This was done in the form of workshops with school teachers[6], both at primary and secondary levels, publishers, as well as the personnel of the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) and the Zimbabwe School Examination Council (ZIMSEC). With the required ethical clearance, contacts were made with relevant authorities in schools, CDU and ZIMSEC to schedule dates and times for the workshops. The same applied to publishers, who did not require any such clearance.

The size of each workshop depended on the kind of institution where it was held. Those that were held with schools would constitute a minimum of seven participants. In the case of high schools where teachers are subject specialists, the selection of participants prioritised those who teach English as a subject, but participation remained voluntary and those who teach other subjects were also welcome. The average number of participants for the four high schools was nine. At the primary school level every teacher teaches English as a subject. To avoid upsetting the school schedule, the headmistress of the first school where a workshop was held offered the participation of grade representatives among her staff, a procedure which resulted in the workshop consisting of seven teachers. This procedure was subsequently adopted by the researcher when approaching other primary schools.

[6] Seven schools, four high schools and three primary schools participated in the model-testing workshops. With three of them having been covered by the research assistant at the initial stage of the research, it means that the entire research covered ten schools altogether.

When the researcher contacted the CDU office, no permission was granted for a specifically CDU workshop. Rather the researcher was invited to attend a joint CDU-ZIMSEC training workshop for English examination moderators which was held on the 15th of June 2011 in Harare. This workshop was conducted by CDU and ZIMSEC officials and English examination moderators from different regions of the country attended. Examination moderators train and supervise the markers. In other words, they are the chief examiners. Also in attendance were staff members from book publishing companies. The following week, two workshops were held with two of them, namely College Press and Longman Zimbabwe. The College Press workshop had three participants, each from the publishing division, English editorial section and marketing. Two members were made available from Longman Zimbabwe to represent the School Textbooks Production Unit and the Marketing Section. Both workshops were held on the 20th of June. ZIMSEC also granted the researcher an opportunity for a separate discussion which was held on the 21st of June 2011. Five staff members, consisting of the Deputy Director for Text Development, the Deputy Director for Research, the Subject Head for English and two others participated.

With the exception of CDU-ZIMSEC workshop, as it will be shown shortly, all the others were conducted in a similar fashion. The researcher would introduce himself and the research. The participants would then be supplied with copies of the draft model (see Appendix 3). A 10-15 minute presentation would then be made to describe the model in a little detail and how it was conceived as an intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. Relevant dictionaries were used in each presentation to demonstrate the limitations of certain dictionaries and how the proposed model seeks to address them. Thereafter the workshops would be open for the participants to air their opinions or to ask the researcher some questions regarding the model and its possible implementation procedures. The participants would indicate whether they thought an intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe was necessary and whether a lexicographical one espoused in the draft model would be worthwhile. The factors militating against dictionary use would be discussed, and the participants would indicate whether they were aware of what was expected of them regarding the establishment or revival of a dictionary culture. The entire duration of the workshops would range between 40 and 60 minutes. In the case

of schools, the researcher would end by requesting a workshop evaluation report not only to evaluate the model, but also whether the discussions were themselves useful to the participants. These would be collected at arranged later dates. While participants from other schools cooperated, others were not able to write the reports, yet others would end up writing them under pressure in the presence of the researcher on the agreed collection dates (see Appendix 4 for the supplied reports).

As for the joint CDU-ZIMSEC workshop, the researcher was invited mainly to observe, with no chance to present and test the draft model. The CDU and ZIMSEC officials made presentations and the examination moderators were expected to make similar presentations at the regional workshops which were scheduled for later dates. The use of dictionaries for marking examinations was mentioned, which was interesting for the researcher. However, the researcher could not take over the proceedings in his favour. There was also no time to make a follow-up on the points that were relevant for the present research. The useful insights that emerged would, nevertheless, enrich the subsequent workshops at schools and with ZIMSEC staff.

Altogether, the model-testing workshops and the joint CDU-ZIMSEC workshop proved to be generally effective in obtaining the insights that contributed to the innovation of the model (see 7.5.1 and 7.5.2). Furthermore, critical reflections on the information that was obtained from the workshops provide thoughts that are worthy of consideration if Zimbabwean lexicography is to be taken to new frontiers.

2.8 Deductive data analysis and dictionary criticism

The main analytical method of all the data that is used in this research is deductive. Accordingly, the present research is at best qualitative. This means that the statistical dimension of this research, especially associated with the questionnaire survey and the number of focus group discussions that were held is dominated by the qualitative dimension. Perhaps the most significant statistics in this research would be the average national English pass-rate of 33% in the last decade that was obtained from ZIMSEC officials. Some of the schools reported a pass-rate of less than 10% in English. This compares badly with the figures of at least 98 percent that was obtained

in some of the former Group A schools in the subject, where one of the teachers indicated that their learners sit for the ZIMSEC English 'O' Level only to get a qualification to fall back on in case they fail the Cambridge examination. Furthermore, there seems to be a relationship between the pass-rate in English, Shona or Ndebele and the other subjects that are taught in English. Although there are learners who fail Shona and Ndebele (cf. Mlambo 2002), the failure-rate is much less than it normally is in English and the other subjects. Another important statistic pertains to the number of dictionaries that were found in the surveyed schools (see 4.3.3). Together with pass-rates, these statistics are telling and, clearly, an intervention is needed in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe.

Whether or not lexicography may be the necessary intervention in the acquisition of English cannot be ascertained by any statistics that can be generated in the present lexicographical environment in Zimbabwe. For instance, there were respondents in the questionnaire survey who argued that there is no need for Zimbabwe to consider English lexicography as is being done in the present study (see Appendix 2) and some teachers who argued during the model testing workshops that a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe is not necessary. Notwithstanding the fact that such statistics are less significant compared to those that affirm such a need, the affirmation of the need for such an intervention is based on the analysis of the situations in which Zimbabweans use English and encounter problems which may be solved by means of lexicographical data. These situations are deduced from the language policy, the language-in-education policy, the English syllabi and examination question papers which were used in this research as the primary documents. As will be shown in Chapter Seven, some of the lexicographically-relevant problems were confirmed during the model testing workshops (see Chapter Seven and Appendix 4). Otherwise some of the views that emerged from the Zimbabweans who participated in the research were evaluated in terms of the lexicographical experience of the participants which, it has to be stated, is generally part of a poor dictionary culture. This is consistent with the lexicographical function theory that underpins this study (see 3.3).

Similarly, dictionary criticism, an integral element of this study as shown in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, was conducted using a deductive method. This constituted

using the lexicographical function theory to relate the lexicographical data that is included in a number of selected dictionaries with the lexicographical needs that such data normally address. The user characteristics of the categorised Zimbabwean English learners were used to determine the problems and needs that would be experienced in specific situations, bearing in mind that these should be lexicographically relevant. On that basis, it was possible to evaluate the strengths and limitations of the studied dictionaries as far as Zimbabwean users are concerned. In some cases, the weaknesses were not simply related to the mere absence of lexicographical data in the proposed dictionaries, but also the fact that some of the dictionaries are too culture-specific and, therefore, somewhat lacking relevance when it comes to the needs of the Zimbabweans.

2.9 Ethical issues

As far as ethics are concerned, it was determined after discussions involving the researcher and his supervisor, as well as the researcher and educational authorities in Zimbabwe, that the entire research would not require stringent ethical procedures. The Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe only required a confirmation letter from the supervisor that the information that was solicited would only be used for academic purposes. Upon the provision of that letter (see Appendix 5), a clearance was granted permitting schools, the CDU and ZIMSEC to assist the researcher (see Appendix 6). The ministry and some schools requested to be supplied with the final copy of the dissertation, although an abridged report is considered more appropriate. Finally, although the majority of the participants in the research had no problems with disclosing their identities in questionnaires, focus group discussions, model testing workshops as well as the workshop evaluations (in terms of school names), an effort was made, where possible, to exclude their names. For instance, the names of the participants in the questionnaire survey appeared on the reports, but they were omitted from Appendix 2. However, all the participants have been duly acknowledged in the appropriate acknowledgements page.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted a very concise account of the present researcher's experience in gathering the relevant data for this dissertation. Insights have also been given on the analytical procedures and techniques that will ensue between Chapter Four and Chapter Eight. Tarp (2009: 279) argues that for every lexicographical research to be relevant, its methodology should "generate knowledge of *how* dictionaries are used … *who* the users are, *where*, *when* and *why* they use dictionaries, and with *which* result". While the collected data will go a long way in addressing most of those questions, one may also observe that for a community like Zimbabwe where dictionary culture is poor, as will emerge later on, and where there has been no previous research on English lexicography, the main subject of this research, the questions proffered by Tarp (2009) need to be preceded by questions of whether dictionaries are really used, and if so, *what* and *which* dictionaries are being used. In such a context, it becomes a little premature, especially for the English learners whose lexicographical needs will be specifically discussed in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, to dwell on the question of *with which result* because there are either no results or where they exist they would be quite insignificant. Nevertheless, this does not dismiss the need for a lexicographical intervention in this respect.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

The present study is based on the theory of learners' lexicography developed by Sven Tarp and outlined in Tarp (2004; 2008). The purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive outline of this theory and demonstrate the extent to which it informs the study. The theory of learners' lexicography cannot be comprehended in isolation. It is a specific subsection and application of the lexicographical function theory, a general theory of lexicography formulated, elaborated, and applied in seminal publications by its proponents, *inter alia* Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995; 2003), Bergenholtz and Nielsen (2006), Tarp 2000; 2002; 2003; 2004; 2004a; 2005; 2008; 2010). It is, therefore, in the context of its general theory that the theory of learners' lexicography is outlined. In turn, the lexicographical function theory is itself put into perspective by relating it to Herbert Ernst Wiegand's general theory of lexicography (cf. Wiegand 1984), whose formulation remains a landmark in the history of lexicography. The function theory and the general theory of lexicography of Wiegand share basic postulates. Firstly, they consider lexicography as a separate discipline from linguistics and, secondly, they regard dictionaries as utility products. These postulates will be elaborated in this chapter within the framework of the two theories.

Section 3.1 provides a brief discussion of the notion of lexicographical theory. This is then followed by an overview of Wiegand's theory in Section 3.2. The lexicographical function theory is outlined in 3.3. This is subsequently followed by a discussion of the theory of learners' lexicography in Section 3.4, paying attention to its specific features which distinguishes it from other specific sub-theories of the lexicographical function theory. From Section 3.2 up to Section 3.4, links will consistently be made between this research and the theories that are outlined. Section 3.5 concludes the chapter.

3.1 The notion of lexicographical theory

The major aim of this section is to affirm the need for and existence of a lexicographical theory. This is not least because it precedes sections which outline the specific theories forming the theoretical framework for this study and subsequent chapters which apply those theories. It is mainly because of the recent arguments on the subject of lexicographical theory, particularly those made to the effect that a theory of lexicography is neither a reality nor an attainable and a desirable persuasion. This, of course transpires against the background of various portfolios of seminal publications, some of which will be used in the subsequent sections of this chapter, which systematically endeavour to articulate the lexicographical theory. By recognising these works, as demonstrated by a relatively long chapter on the theoretical framework, the present work stands in stark contrast with, among others, Béjoint (2010) who declares:

> The chapter on the theory of lexicography will be as short as a chapter on snakes in Ireland. I do not simply believe that there exists a theory of lexicography, and, I very much doubt that there can be one. Those who have proposed a general theory of lexicography have not been found convincing by the community, and for good reasons. A theory is a system of ideas put forward to explain phenomena that are otherwise unexplainable. A science has a theory, a craft does not. All natural phenomena need a theory, but how can there be a theory of production of artefacts? (Béjoint 2010: 381).

The above excerpt constitutes half the length of Béjoint's chapter on the subject. He is not alone in taking that position. Atkins and Rundell (2008: 4), who are also cited in Béjoint's (2010) short chapter, also write that they "do not believe that such a thing (theoretical lexicography) exists". They represent some of the members of the metalexicographical community who have found the other members unconvincing in their efforts to articulate a theory of lexicography. Although Béjoint (2010) argues that they have good reasons, those reasons may not be good enough to those who argue for a theory. One of them, it seems, is that lexicography is an art and craft, in terms of Landau (2001). However, as will be seen in 3.2 and 3.3, the formulation of lexicographical theories has been inspired by viewing lexicography as more than just an art and craft. Whereas artists and craftsmen can still engage in their artistic endeavours today using their natural talents, lexicographers will need some education

either in language studies or more significantly, lexicography (cf. Gouws 2001). Mother-tongue competence in a language is just not enough. As will be shown later on in Section 3.2, Wiegand (1984: 13) regards lexicography as "a scientific practice". A theory is needed to formulate models for this practice.

Another contention appears to be of a semantic nature, i.e. pertaining to the meaning of *theory*, which Tarp (2008: 9) finds to be equally problematic. The *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary* (OALD) defines theory in terms of three paraphrases of its meaning, the first two of which are listed below:

- A formal set of ideas that are extended to explain why something happens and exists.
- The principles on which a particular subject is based.

The two meanings of *theory* retrieved from the OALD are clear and somewhat related. Why something exists or happens may be the source of principles on which a subject is based. This means that a theory of lexicography may explain the existence of the needs that result in dictionary consultation or production. At the same time, it would then be a body of those principles on which lexicographical principles are based. Béjoint (2010) concurs with Atkins and Rundell (2008: 4) when they prefer "to think of principles that guide lexicographers in their work". It is not clear how those principles do not or cannot constitute a theory. The only issue that remains in an argument against lexicographical theory is perhaps that a theory is "put forward to explain [natural] phenomena", according to which lexicography cannot have a theory since it is not a natural science, (i.e. "All natural phenomena need a theory, but how can there be a theory of production of artefacts?" (Béjoint 2010: 381)). Again this is a difficult one since there is a theory for production, a theory for sociology and many other social science disciplines. Since Atkins and Rundell (2008: 4) acknowledge that although their book is not about theoretical lexicography, it does not mean that they "pay no attention to theoretical issues", there is no doubt that some of those issues constitute some elements of certain lexicographical theories that have been put forward. This remains true even though they argue that they are drawn from linguistic theory which, as will be shown, is embraced but not completely by the proponents of lexicographical theory.

In the light of the above, it may be argued that a theory of lexicography exists. Perhaps what is lacking and not convincing thus far is its formulation, meaning to say that those who have been presenting it have not succeeded in doing so in a way that is comprehensible to the entire lexicographical community as accounts of their work. That would be an unattainable goal. All theories have proponents and opponents. One only has to hope that lexicographers may progressively get new theoretical apparatus to add to those principles that have in time immemorial guided lexicographical work in order to respond to new challenges that are encountered in dictionary use and production. By not completely adopting the theories outlined in the next sections for the present research, an acknowledgement is made that dynamism rather than unanimity is required in the endeavour of lexicographical theory to make it relevant.

3.2 Wiegand's general theory of lexicography

Wiegand (1984) is one of the four publications in which an overview of the general theory of lexicography is presented. The other three are written in German (cf. Smit 1996; 2001; 2002). Smit (1996; 2001; 2002) provides a comprehensive elaboration of Wiegand's general theory of lexicography. Wiegand himself elaborates on some of the specific sub-theories of his general theory in Wiegand (1996; 1996a; 2004). Figure 1 below is a sketch of the structure and contents of Wiegand's general theory of lexicography.

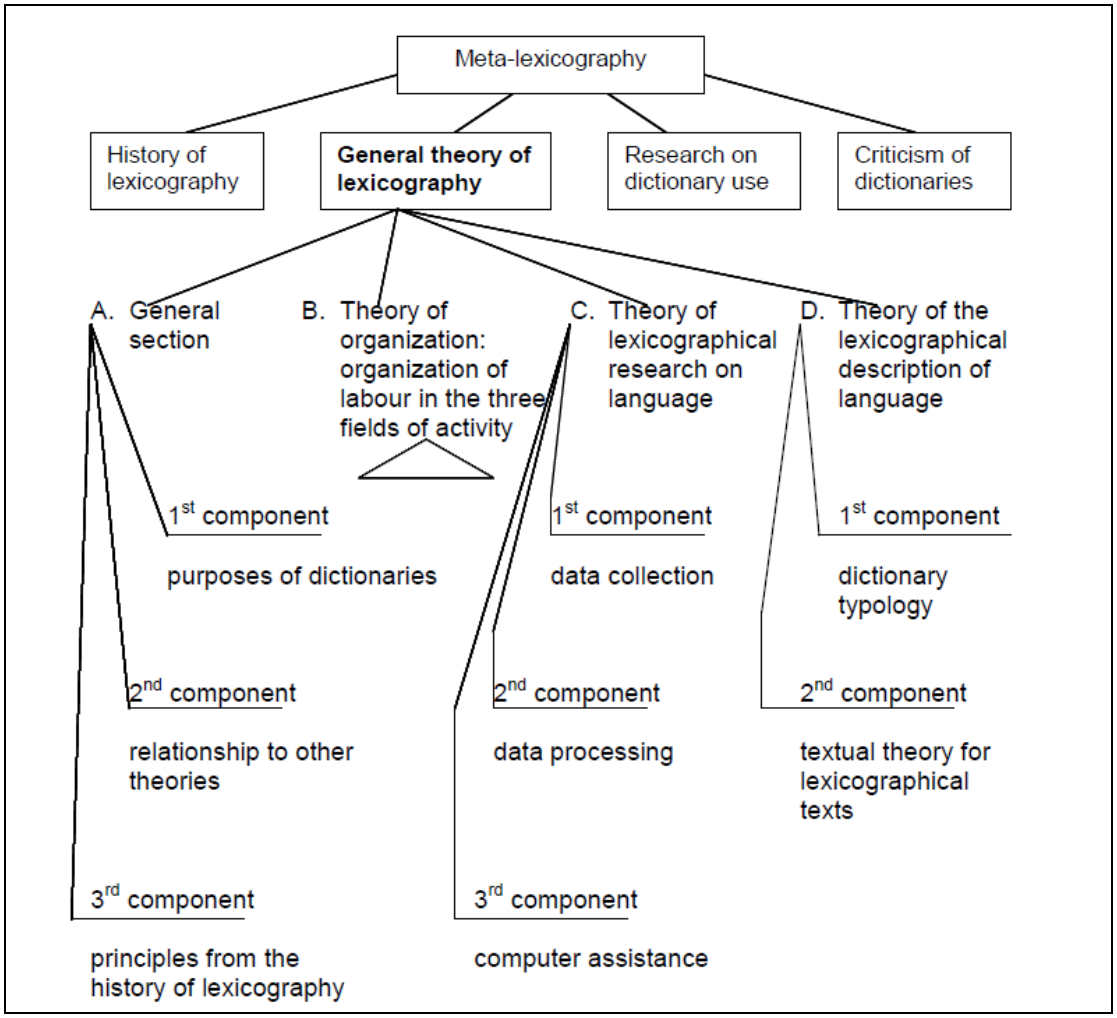


Figure 1: A sketch of the structure and contents of a general theory of lexicography (Source: Wiegand 1984).

According to Wiegand (1984: 15), the general theory of lexicography is part of metalexicography. Metalexicography is the total metadomain of lexicographical research (Hartmann 2001: 156). It includes the history of lexicography, research on dictionary use and criticism of dictionaries as the other lexicographical research fields. While these are notably at the same level with the general theory of lexicography and outside its structure as shown in Figure 1, their importance cannot be overemphasised. The general theory of lexicography utilises results of research on the history of lexicography, research on dictionary use and the criticism of existing dictionaries. The following subsections provide brief discussions, at the same time indicating relevance to the present study, of the following constituent parts of the general theory of lexicography:

- General section
- Theory of organisation
- Theory of lexicographical research on language
- Theory of lexicographical description of language.

3.2.1 The general section

According to Wiegand (1984: 15), the general section consists of purposes of dictionaries as the first component. The relationship of a general theory to other theories constitutes the second component. The third and final component consists of principles from the history of lexicography. Elaborations of each component are made in the following sub-subsections.

3.2.1.1 Purposes of dictionaries

Wiegand (1984: 15-16) states that the "general purposes of mono-, bi- and multilingual language dictionaries are derived from the communicative and cognitive needs of the society or societies". Dictionaries are practical tools to which their users refer in order to satisfy practical communicative and cognitive needs (cf. Al-Kasimi 1977, McArthur 1986; 1986a, Béjoint 2000, Tarp 2000; 2007, Gouws 2001; 2004; 2007). It is also notable that different dictionary types will have different purposes (Smit 1996: 64). In terms of Wiegand (1984), they are utility tools with a genuine purpose. Smit (1996: 65-66) illustrates how Wiegand (1998) arrives at the notion of a *genuine purpose*, stating:

> The purposes are given in general terms and classified in groups in such a way that specific and concrete lexicographical purposes may be derived for each dictionary type … (Wiegand 1984: 16).

As will be noted later, the argument regarding the purposes of dictionaries is central to the lexicographical function theory, the major difference being in the conception of the so-called lexicographical function and ultimately the genuine purpose (see 3.3). Nevertheless, the utility value of dictionaries is clearly exalted. For this dissertation, this aspect is extremely important as it is a lack of its realisation that inspires the

entire argument. Furthermore, whatever practical undertakings have to be considered as part of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe, planning and prioritisation should aim at realising the functional value of dictionaries.

3.2.1.2 Relationships to other theories

Wiegand (1984: 16) indicates that relationships of the general theory of lexicography to other theories consider the connections that lexicography bears with the various theories. Smit (1996: 66-94) demonstrates, for instance, how Wiegand has appropriated semantic theories and theories on special subject fields in developing the general theory of lexicography. By its very nature, lexicography is interdisciplinary. Hartmann and James (1998: vi) describe lexicography as:

> … a field whose endeavours are informed by the theories and practices of information science, literature, publishing, philosophy, and historical, comparative and applied linguistics. Sister disciplines such as terminology, lexicology, encyclop(a)edia work, bibliography, indexing, information technology, librarianship, media studies, translation and teaching, as well as the neighbouring disciplines of history, education and anthropology, provide the wider setting within which lexicographers have defined and developed their field.

The disciplinary status of lexicography has always been a subject of debate due to the open multi-disciplinary vocation of the field. Before the development of Wiegand's theory, too much emphasis was put on linguistic theories in the production and evaluation of dictionaries. Zgusta (1971: 10) states that his motivation in producing *A Manual of Lexicography* was to demonstrate the importance of effectively conceiving lexicographical problems within the framework of linguistic theory. While this was a great milestone in the establishment of theoretical lexicography, it unfortunately led to the neglect of other aspects of dictionaries by lexicographers, particularly dictionary structures and, more importantly, their functions. Consequently, Wiegand (1984: 13) argues that lexicography is neither a branch of linguistics, applied linguistics nor lexicology and that it is "more than the application of linguistic theories and methods or the utilisation of linguistic philological findings". He goes on to argue that lexicography is a "scientific practice aimed at producing reference works on

language" (Wiegand 1984: 14). Therefore, the general theory of lexicography intended to "systematically process and explain the reasons for the knowledge required to enable lexicographers to carry out their work appropriately and as well as possible" (Wiegand 1984: 14-15). This pertains to lexicographical planning, lexicographical training, research and actual dictionary compilation using methods that yield user-friendly dictionaries. This cannot be achieved through complete and uncritical appropriation of theories and methods of other disciplines.

The relationship that lexicography has with other disciplines has also been discussed by other scholars (cf. Hartmann 2001; 2005, Tarp 2000; 2004; 2008; 2010, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005). Since this section focuses on Wiegand's theory, no treatise of the views of the other scholars is offered here. It suffices to note that while there may be slightly different opinions regarding the disciplinary status of lexicography bearing in mind its relationships to other theories, Wiegand's development of the general theory and his declaration that lexicography is neither a branch of linguistics nor lexicology inspired many modern metalexicographers. The lexicographical function theory and its specific subsections illustrate this vividly (see 3.3 and 3.4). Accordingly, while this study considers the acquisition of English through the school system in Zimbabwe, great care is taken to ensure that it is not easily swayed and led astray by linguistic, language planning and language acquisition theories, for example. However, this does not mean that the potential contributions of these theories should be totally ignored.

3.2.1.3 Principles from the history of lexicography

The history of lexicography, as outlined in the works of Al-Kasimi (1977), McArthur (1986, 1986a), Osselton (1983), Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) and Yong and Peng (2007), among others, is long. In the third component of the general section of his general theory, Wiegand (1984: 16) advises that connections should be made with the history of lexicography in order to establish certain principles that have been followed. Lexicographers can learn from the past, and by studying various dictionaries and their types, they can also determine the validity of certain principles in the planning of new dictionaries.

For this study, both the histories of English lexicography and Zimbabwean lexicography (see 1.2) are relevant in order to ensure that functional and user-friendly English dictionaries are made available in the country. If English dictionaries are to be produced specifically for Zimbabweans, the available English dictionaries need to be considered. Studying the history of English lexicography in relation to Zimbabwean users should focus on their strengths and limitations in a way that may enhance the proposed lexicographical intervention regarding English in the country.

Perhaps the major principle from the general history of lexicography, regardless of language and society, is that lexicography developed as a practical problem-solving activity. Dictionaries developed not as theoretical instruments but practical tools with each culture fostering appropriate dictionaries characteristic of its demands (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 1). Studying the available dictionaries in a speech community helps lexicographers to determine those lexicographical needs that may not have received attention. At times the needs may have been neglected not because the available dictionaries could not cover them but because well-thought out principles were not applied. Accordingly, the lexicographical history of a community becomes the satellite which powers the lexicographer's GPS with relevant signals in the planning and compilation of new dictionaries.

3.2.2 Theory of organisation

The second part of the general section of the general theory of lexicography, i.e. the theory of organisation, is not elaborated in Wiegand (1984), but insights into this part are found in publications of other scholars such as Smit (1996), Gouws (2001) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). According to Smit (1996: 105), the theory of organisation serves the purpose of determining the basic rules for organising all the areas of lexicographical activities. Among other considerations, it concerns the organisation of labour, as indicated in Figure 1. Regarding the envisaged lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe, a lot of questions will definitely be raised. For instance, who will compile English dictionaries in Zimbabwe? Who will publish the dictionaries? Is the intervention itself a worthwhile enterprise? Such questions are dealt with in Chapter Seven.

3.2.3 Theory of lexicographical research on language

According to Wiegand (1984: 16), "a theory of lexicographical research is the class of all scientific methods that can be applied in lexicography". As shown in Figure 1, there are three components in this constituent part, namely data collection, data processing, and computer assistance. It is necessary to elaborate on each of these in terms of Wiegand (1984) and other latest developments in the field.

3.2.3.1 Data collection

Following Wiegand's subdivision of the dictionary conceptualisation plan, data collection falls within the scope of material acquisition. It concerns "the collection, composition, representativity, function and typology of lexicographical corpora relative to dictionary types" (Wiegand 1984: 16). In other words, it refers to all research activities leading to the establishment of a dictionary basis (cf. Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 16-17; 21). What sources are used? How is the relevant material extracted from the relevant sources? These and other questions will be discussed in the Chapters Five and Six, especially with regard to lemma selection in view of the needs of specific users in specific situations of learning and using English in Zimbabwe.

3.2.3.2 Data processing

When the dictionary basis has been established, data processing is undertaken "so that a dictionary file suitable for a particular dictionary type or a group of dictionary types is established" (Wiegand 1984: 16). Lemma selection policies explicated in the instruction book begin to function at this stage. The dictionary file should indicate the source from which a particular lemma sign was drawn as well as the date. The provision of other data categories such as paraphrases of meaning and illustrative examples will also benefit from data processing.

3.2.3.3 Computer assistance

Wiegand (1984: 16) states that depending on the progress of computational lexicography, a theory about computer assistance may be added as the third component of the theory of lexicographical research on language. The progress of computational lexicography can no longer be questioned in modern-day lexicography. A model for English lexicography in Zimbabwe definitely needs to have computer assistance as an important element in at least three ways. Firstly, where the use of corpora would be required, the corpora would be stored in computers. Secondly, the actual writing of dictionaries has to rely on computers, considering that the available ones were written that way. Finally, the rendering of some dictionaries on CD-ROM or internet formats has to be considered in the long term as part of the progress not only in technology but in lexicography as well.

3.2.4 Theory of the lexicographical description of language

Wiegand (1984: 16) proffers that a theory of lexicographical description of language concerns all the presentations of the results of linguistic lexicography as texts about language, which include language dictionaries, word indexes, concordances and glossaries. In 3.2.4.1 and 3.2.4.2 respectively, dictionary typology and a textual theory for lexicographical texts are discussed as the two major elements of this theoretical component.

3.2.4.1 Dictionary typology

Wiegand (1984: 17) regards dictionary typology as a major component of a general theory of lexicography since it affects the formulation of many statements in the theory. Various scholars have used various criteria to develop typological distinctions of dictionaries. Yong and Peng (2007: 61-67) review various typological classifications by several scholars to show their limitations. Smit (1996: 156-168) also discusses various attempts towards dictionary typology by other scholars, including Wiegand (1988). An equally detailed review of dictionary typology will not be offered here. It suffices to state that dictionary typology generally seems to be fluid,

highlighting overlaps between dictionary types. Fixing a particular type of dictionary according to a particular criterion does not only show limitations of the classification system but also of dictionaries produced on the basis of such criteria. Gouws (2001) therefore advises that decisions regarding the typology of dictionaries to be compiled should be based on proper needs analysis and reference skills of the intended users. A functional approach to dictionary typology is therefore more useful as it allows for innovative typological flexibility (Gouws 2001: 80). Instead of trying to fix a dictionary into a particular type, lexicographers can accommodate features from various types depending on the lexicographical needs of the target users. Therefore, a more useful approach to dictionary typology should be open to sub-typological classifications and typological hybrids which may be fostered by function-merging. In the case of Zimbabwe, questions regarding the suitability of mono-, bi- and multilingual solutions need not to be trapped within typological boundaries between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, for instance, or the traditional distinctions between school and learners' dictionaries.

3.2.4.2 Textual theory for lexicographical texts

Wiegand's (1984: 17) textual theory for lexicographical texts concerns the structure of lexicographical texts and dictionaries. Before Wiegand's general theory of lexicography, emphasis was placed on the contents of the dictionary due a pre-theoretical approach and later on a more linguistic approach to dictionary making. Research on dictionary structure focuses on both the contents and form of dictionaries (Gouws 2004: 68, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 6). This has direct consequences for the user's access to the data and information retrieval. Wiegand and many other modern metalexicographers have developed insightful specific theories regarding various types of dictionary structures (cf. Wiegand 1996; 1996a; 2004, Gouws 2003; 2004; 2006; 2007, Nielsen 1999, Tarp 1999). Dictionary structures are considered in this research, especially in Chapters Five and Six, to interrogate the accessibility and user-friendliness of English dictionaries in view of Zimbabweans as dictionary users.

3.3 The lexicographical function theory

The lexicographical function theory has been put forward by Danish scholars led by Henning Bergenholtz and Sven Tarp at the Aarhus School of Business's Centre for Lexicography. The following are some of their publications in which the theory is articulated and applied: Bergenholtz (2003), Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995; 2003; 2010), Bergenholtz and Nielsen (2006), Tarp (1999; 2000; 2002; 2004; 2004a; 2005; 2008; 2010), Gouws (2004; 2004a; 2007) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). This theory considers lexicography as an independent discipline with dictionaries as its subject matter (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 172, Tarp 2004; 2010). Regarding, the relationship between lexicography and linguistics, it argues that lexicography ought to treat linguistics in the same way as the other disciplines of which the results may only be used as and when necessary (Tarp 2004: 224). Emphasis is placed on dictionary users, user situations, user needs and assistance from dictionaries. According to Tarp (2008: 43), the first three are extra-lexicographical elements, meaning that "they exist independently of actual dictionary usage". The fourth element is "intra-lexicographical" (Tarp 2008: 43), which means that it can only be realised upon dictionary usage. The next subsections elaborate on each element.

3.3.1 The user as the core of the lexicographical function theory

Tarp (2004: 225) argues that the lexicographical function theory is user-driven. Dictionary users always occupied a central role in lexicography, given that dictionaries were compiled so that they could be used. However, several scholars, e.g. Hartmann (1989), contend that the compilation of dictionaries was based on what now appears to have been the well-known unknown user. The significance of the user was clearly articulated by Fred Householder at the end of the historic 1960 Indiana Conference, which was the first to be specifically convened for lexicography, leading to the publication of Householder and Saporta (1967). Since then, dictionary-making attempts to become mutual communication between lexicographers and their intended users (Yong and Peng 2007: 28). The user perspective is now an important lexicographical concept (cf. Hartmann 1989; 2001, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005).

The lexicographical function theory makes a distinction between a potential user and the actual user. Since the theory is concerned with the user as an extra-lexicographical element, it follows that this user is the potential user. This is the user the lexicographer has in mind when compiling a dictionary. In order to ensure that an appropriate tool is produced, the potential user should be rigorously analysed, focusing primarily on the user's typical characteristics. The following questions, depending on various factors, should be considered (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 173; Tarp 2008: 55):

- Which language is the mother tongue of the users?
- At what level do they master their mother tongue?
- To what extent do they master a specific foreign language?
- To what extent do they master a specific specialised language in their mother tongue?
- To what extent do they master a specific specialised language in a foreign language?
- How much experience of translation do they have?
- How great is their general cultural knowledge?
- How great is their knowledge of culture in a specific foreign-language area?
- How much do they know about a specific subject or science?

The relevance of the user characteristics established from the above questions depends largely on the particular dictionary being compiled; especially its specific users, their situations, their needs and the assistance that should be provided by the dictionary. This will be indicated in the context of the theory of learners' lexicography, from which guidance is solicited towards the lexicographical intervention in English acquisition and use in Zimbabwe.

3.3.2 User situations

According to Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003: 172), user situations may be understood as the human activities or the social situations in which users experience problems which are resolved by consulting a dictionary. The situations are extra-lexicographical in that they exist independently of dictionary use or its availability. So are the problems that arise in such situations, but only some of them may be solved by consulting a dictionary (cf. Tarp (2000; 2002; 2004; 2004a; 2005), Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003),

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005)). A distinction is therefore made between lexicographically-relevant and lexicographically-irrelevant problems.

The lexicographical function theory makes some distinctions between cognitive situations, communicative situations, operative situations and interpretive situations, but the last two were recently established (Tarp 2010). This dissertation will focus on the first two kinds of situations which are of definite relevance in language learning and use. In the former, the user may want to obtain additional knowledge of a general, cultural or specialised nature about a specific language, topic or specialised subject. On the other hand, communicative situations involve problems related to production, reception and translation of texts. These situations are understood within the framework of simple communication models (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 174, Tarp 2008: 47-54). Altogether, user situations combine with the characteristics of the users to determine the user needs.

3.3.3 User needs

The notion of *reference needs*, notwithstanding its importance in lexicography, is now a catchword that is in danger of becoming a metalexicographical cliché. When writing about their dictionaries, be it in the cover entries, introductory or prefatory sections, newspapers or even academic journals, lexicographers always claim to have compiled their dictionaries according to criteria which satisfy the user needs. Unfortunately, what are referred to as reference needs are oftentimes what lexicographers know to be users' expectations of their dictionaries. Tarp (2004a: 312) stresses the necessity of making a distinction in this regard when he writes:

> … no data is included because of tradition or the practice of existing dictionaries. It is not a question of what users expect to find in the dictionary due to an improper dictionary culture, but what they actually need.

According to Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003: 172), user needs are "what is needed to solve a set of specific problems that pop up for a specific group of users with specific characteristics in specific user situations". This should be linked with their extra-lexicographical problems. Therefore, lexicographers would determine the user needs in terms of the relevance of various data categories in solving specific problems faced

by specific users in specific situations. The remitting outcome of this exercise is that the inclusion of data types is done as a means of addressing the real user needs.

3.3.4 Assistance from dictionaries

According to Tarp (2008: 58), "the assistance that dictionaries provide for users consists of lexicographical data, from which users can extract information covering their needs in specific situations". Here it is necessary to note a distinction between data on the one hand and information on the other. Dictionaries contain data, presented as different items, e.g. lemmata, which may in turn provide information, e.g. spelling. Thus, various types of data aim to satisfy the information needs of users in specific situations. In this regard, a distinction is made between primary data, i.e. data that aims to satisfy primary needs of users, and secondary data, i.e. data that cover secondary needs. Primary data are function-related while secondary data are related to dictionary usage. While both these types of data are important, there is no doubt that primary data is central to the lexicographical function theory as it is on this basis that the functions of a specific dictionary, and ultimately its genuine purpose, are defined. Tarp (2008: 81) defines a lexicographical function as "the satisfaction of the specific types of lexicographically-relevant needs that may arise in a specific type of potential user in a specific type of extra-lexicographical situation". Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003: 176) indicate that the assistance from dictionaries is integral in the lexicographical function theory as it constitutes a lexicographical function. Tarp (2008: 82) illustrates this in terms of Figure 2 below.

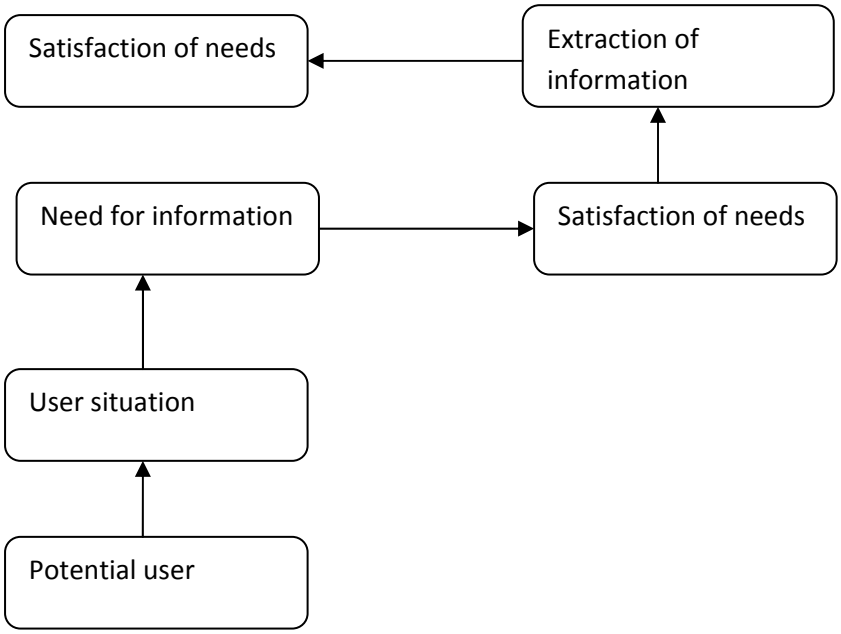


Figure 2: The relationship between user- and situation-related needs, data, information and satisfaction of needs according to the lexicographical function theory (Source: Tarp 2008: 83).

In terms of Figure 2, "user needs determine the data contained in the dictionary" (Tarp 2008: 83). While it is possible to argue the other way round, that the data contained in the dictionary determines the needs that can be satisfied, it should be borne in mind that "needs generally arise before the object of use that is capable of satisfying them" (Tarp 2008: 83). In view of this, the present dissertation will first affirm the needs of Zimbabweans regarding English before evaluating the extent to which the available English dictionaries satisfy those needs. On the basis of the needs, proposals shall also be made for new dictionaries that may address those needs that are not covered in the existing dictionaries.

Following the distinction that is primarily made between user situations, i.e. cognitive situation and communicative situations discussed in 3.4.2, a distinction is also made between cognitive and communicative functions. The following are the most important types of cognitive functions:

- to provide general cultural and encyclopaedic information to the users;
- to provide special information about the subject field to the users;
- to provide information about the language to the users (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 176).

The communicative functions of dictionaries include the following:

- to assist users in solving problems related to text reception in the native language;
- to assist users in solving problems related to text production in the native language;
- to assist users in solving problems related to text reception in a foreign language;
- to assist users in solving problems related to text production in a foreign language;
- to assist users in solving problems related to translation of texts from the native language into a foreign language;
- to assist users in solving problems related to translation of texts from a foreign language into the native language (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 176).

The listed lexicographical functions are general and not all of them will be relevant to every dictionary. Therefore, it is important to make them more specific in respect of each dictionary. Lexicographers need to decide at the planning stage of the lexicographical process those functions which the prospective dictionary is intended to fulfill. In this study, the relevance or importance of certain functions shall be demonstrated with respect to specific types of users in specific types of situations of English learning and use in Zimbabwe in Chapters Five and Six. Then, following Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003: 176), the genuine purpose, i.e. the totality of the functions of each particular dictionary, is supporting specifically identified Zimbabweans with the acquisition and use of English in specific situations.

3.4 The general theory of learners' lexicography

Tarp (2008: 2) states that while it was considered that a theory of learners' lexicography needed to be an integral part of a general lexicographical theory, the latter appeared to be in a crisis. This inspired critical reflections on previous efforts towards the development of a general theory of lexicography. In particular, Tarp (2008) reviews Šćerba's draft of a general lexicographical theory (Šćerba 1940), Hausmann's theoretical ideas (Hausmann 1977), Kromann et al.'s active-passive theory (Kromann et al. 1984, 1992) and Wiegand's general lexicographical theory (Wiegand 1977a, 1998a). For good reasons highlighted above, only Wiegand's general theory of lexicography has been reviewed. The rest is provided for background purposes and will be considered only where necessary.

Because the theory of learners' lexicography was eventually conceived within the framework of the lexicographical function theory, it also revolves around a specific user in specific situations where lexicographically-relevant needs may arise and be satisfied by dictionary consultation. The specific user in this case is the learner. Thus the theory of learners' lexicography considers the learner in specific situations where problems may arise that may be solved by consulting a dictionary. Yet the concept of the learner is unclear and ambiguous (Tarp 2008: 125, Gouws 2010: 56). According to Gouws (2010: 56), it could either refer to a learner of the language in which the dictionary is presented or a learner of the subject field treated in the dictionary. This means that the term 'learner' refers to both learners of a language and learners of scientific, theoretical or practical disciplines. Any dictionary that is specifically conceived to cover the needs related to the learning of a language or a specific subject may, therefore, be considered a learners' dictionary. However, this will be against the established use of the terms *learners' dictionary* and *learners' lexicography*. Furthermore, "a learner of the language" is also not a very clear concept. At a workshop on school dictionaries conducted by Sven Tarp on 11 January 2010, the following questions were discussed regarding the issue of the learners' dictionary in relation to language learning:

- Is it only for learners of a second language?
- Is it also for first-language learners?
- Is it also for learners of a specific LSP?

It was determined that, in addition to the learning of scientific, theoretical and practical disciplines, learners' dictionaries should include the learning of the three 'types' of languages. Tarp (2010a) stressed that while the concept of a learner ought to be that broad, it should be limited to those learners following a specific learning programme and exclude the broad sense of life-long learning. However, the implications of this idea are somewhat extreme for practical lexicography, at least in English, whose monumental products are the so-called advanced learners' dictionaries. Given that advanced learners have attained the near-native additional language competence (Tarp 2004), they are unlikely to be involved in specific language learning programmes although they may continue using advanced dictionaries to develop more language skills as part of life-long learning.

For this study, the theory of learners' lexicography is considered specifically for its ideas which are required to determine how dictionaries may support the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. It was indicated in Chapter One that English is mainly acquired as an additional language and mainly through the education system as a compulsory subject. It was also shown that the language also plays an important role as a medium of instruction and language of teaching and learning upwards from the fourth grade. The former case involves acquiring knowledge about this language and its attendant communicative situations. The latter involves the acquisition of LSP elements of the special subjects as well as communicative situations in which English is used. Therefore, this dissertation concerns lexicographical support for learners regarding English within the Zimbabwean education system. This leads us to more theoretical issues pertaining to dictionary typology, especially regarding school dictionaries, learners' dictionaries and pedagogical dictionaries. What is a school dictionary? What should be its focus? Is the concept of a school dictionary different from that of a learners' dictionary? Can a theory of learners' lexicography provide adequate insights into school dictionaries? These questions are obviously related and may be addressed in extension of each other. Firstly, consider the definition of a school dictionary from Hartmann and James's (1998) *Dictionary of Lexicography*.

> **School dictionary**
>
> A dictionary written for school-children, common features of which are a controlled defining vocabulary, a clear design and the incorporation of illustrations. The boundaries between the school dictionary on the one hand, and children's dictionaries … on the other, are not clearly demarcated.

What may be underlined from the above article is that a school dictionary is "written for school-children" (Hartmann and James 1998: 122). It should be added that in addition to the above data, there is a cross-reference to the lemma *learners' dictionary*. The following is part of the article directed at learners' dictionary:

> **Learners' dictionary**
>
> A pedagogical dictionary aimed primarily at non-native learners of a language. The degree to which dictionaries have been integrated into the learning process varies from culture to culture. The true dictionary as a learning tool ('learning dictionary') is still in its infancy….

This explanation of the concept of a learners' dictionary raises no further issues in addition to that of language which has already been discussed. What is remarkable here is that nowhere in the article, nor in the cross-references that have been excluded here, is reference made to *school dictionary*. One can only claim that the fact that a cross-reference was made from *school dictionary* to *learners' dictionary* in the first place indicates that a relationship exists between the two dictionary types. The question that remains pertains to the nature of that relationship. From the treatment of *learners' dictionary* and also from what has already been said about learners' lexicography, one can underline that a learners' dictionary is "a pedagogical dictionary" (Hartmann and James 1998: 82). In the same dictionary, *pedagogical dictionary* is included and treated as a lemma in the following way:

> **Pedagogical dictionary**
>
> A reference work specifically designed for the practical didactic needs of teachers and learners of a language. The distinction usually made between a dictionary for native speakers (SCHOOL DICTIONARY) and one for non-native learners (LEARNERS' DICTIONARY) is not helpful….

Once again, one may only note in passing the narrowness of the sense assigned to *pedagogical dictionary* as it is only associated with the learning of a language. However, an indication of the uselessness of the distinction between a school dictionary on one hand as the one directed at native speakers and a learners' dictionary as that which is directed at non-native learners is significantly remarkable. Further to that, an implicit statement is made to the effect that school dictionaries and learners' dictionaries are both pedagogical dictionaries. This concurs with Gouws (2004: 268) who suggests that the term *learners' dictionaries* should be used "as an umbrella term for both school and non-school-directed dictionaries which display

typical learners' features". At the afore-mentioned workshop, Tarp (2010b) argued that a learners' dictionary is synonymous to a pedagogical dictionary, with the only difference being that it is looked at from the point of view of the learner and not from the point of view of the teacher. Still, it would be important to note that there has to be a difference between a dictionary that is produced for native speakers and additional language learners.

In the light of the above, it is important to consider what Gouws (2004a: 267) argues:

> learners' dictionaries represent a category which tends towards superhero status on account of the diverse nature of the data included … and … the wide spectrum of the user groups at which learners' dictionaries are directed.

Consequently, it seems appropriate to consider the lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English at school level in Zimbabwe from the view of the theory of learners' lexicography. Learning and using English as an additional language within a specific programme of the school system, Zimbabwean students are English learners in all the senses. It is one of the objectives of the present study to provide a detailed analysis of Zimbabweans as English learners, which is done in 4.1. Thereafter an interrogation of lexicography as a worthwhile intervention in the learning and use of this language may be initiated.

Potential users (learners in this case), user situations, user needs and dictionary assistance remain central to the theory of learners' lexicography as a specific sub-theory of the lexicographical function theory. This applies to the other specific theories. However, the potential users and their situations will differ from one specific sub-theory to another. Using the theory of learners' lexicography, this study will pay particular attention to Zimbabwean school learners and their situations of learning and using of English. This will help to determine their needs and the extent to which they are addressed in the available English dictionaries and how the proposed lexicographical intervention may be constituted by new dictionaries which at present do not exist in the Zimbabwean lexicographical scene.

As part of the lexicographical function theory, nine criteria were listed in the form of questions that should guide a user analysis. Not all of them apply to the specific

theories of the lexicographical function theory, e.g., questions about knowledge of specialised subject and specialised languages as being relevant to LSP lexicography. However, within the broader scope delineated above, they may also be covered by learners' lexicography. Their dismissal is a clear bias towards the learning of the 'foreign' language that the theory had at its inception, a bias that more recent publications (cf. Tarp 2010, Gouws 2010) have promptly rectified. Nevertheless, the criteria that were formulated for learners' lexicography suffice for this dissertation which is essentially concerned with language learning and use.

For learners' lexicography, Tarp (2008) distinguishes between inner and outer criteria, explaining that:

> The former relates the learner's language and cultural qualifications; while the latter covers the general conditions in which learners learn foreign languages. … general conditions have a direct influence on the foreign-language learning process, and thereby on the needs of the learners, so they are an important aspect of learner characteristics (Tarp 2008: 137).

Based on the above, twelve criteria are formulated for learners' lexicography, namely:

- What is the mother tongue of the learner?
- To what extent does the learner master their mother tongue?
- To what extent does the learner master the foreign language in question?
- How great is the learner's general cultural knowledge?
- How great is the learner's knowledge of culture in the foreign-language area in question?
- Why does the learner wish to learn the foreign language in question?
- Does the foreign-language learning process take place spontaneously or consciously?
- Is the foreign language being learned within or outside the foreign-language area concerned?
- Is the learner exposed to their mother tongue during the learning process?
- Does the learner use a specific textbook or didactic system?
- Does the learner use a specific didactic method?
- Is the learning process related to a specific subject?

Tarp (2008) discusses the implications of each of the above criteria for the language-learning process and needs of learners. In the next subsections, the criteria are applied within the framework of the learning and use of English in Zimbabwe. However, the

order of the criteria is slightly changed, beginning with the third criterion which is pivotal in language learning.

3.4.1 The learner's foreign-language skills

According to Tarp (2008: 163), the purpose of the foreign-language learning process is foreign-language skills. From that angle, foreign-language learning is seen as a continuum within which different levels of language skills may be identified or at least estimated. Tarp (2008: 140) identifies the following as lexicographically relevant pivotal points in the foreign-language learning scale:

- When learners start thinking in the foreign language and can therefore produce simple sentences and texts directly in this language.
- When learners reach a level at which they are able to understand simple foreign-language explanations based on a reduced vocabulary (2,000-3,000 words, for instance).
- When learners reach a level at which they primarily think and produce texts in the foreign language without a mental or written original in their mother tongue.
- When learners reach a level at which they are able to understand complex explanations in the foreign language.

It is on the basis of the above-listed levels of skills that Tarp (2008) adopts and redefines linguistic concepts of *beginners*, *intermediate learners* and *advanced learners* in terms that permit the formulation of lexicographical solutions to language learning. In the context of Zimbabwe, this study draws from the country's language policy and English school syllabi to determine English beginners, intermediate learners and advanced learners in the Zimbabwean context (see 4.1). Thereafter, it becomes possible to identify the situations where a lexicographical intervention may be needed and to determine the kinds of the required assistance.

3.4.2 The learner's mother tongue

Tarp (2008: 137) underlines the importance of the mother tongue of the users of learners' dictionaries, especially for considerations of bilingual solutions to learner's problems. In a country that is officially multilingual like South Africa, it would be vital to take this point seriously as it may imply compiling several bilingual learners' dictionaries pairing the additional language with various languages spoken as native languages by the learners. The *Oxford Bilingual School Dictionary: English + IsiZulu*

is a good example, but another alternative that has been put in place is the compilation of multilingual dictionaries involving related indigenous languages, e.g. Nguni or Sotho languages, around English as an additional language. In Zimbabwe, Shona and Ndebele are the only indigenous languages that are widely spoken and learnt at school as national languages. Although they are not the only indigenous languages, they are at least *lingua francas* which are also widely spoken even in the areas where minority languages are spoken as native languages. Thus bilingual solutions regarding learner's problems in English learning may revolve around these languages. However, other factors will have to be considered, as shall be shown in the forthcoming chapters.

3.4.3 The learner's command of their mother tongue

The extent of the mastery of the mother tongue by the learner is also important in identifying the precise characteristics of the learner (Tarp 2008: 138). This point also has implications for bilingual solutions just like the issue of mother tongue discussed in 3.4.2, but more significant here would be the age and educational level of the learner. This will become apparent in the next two chapters.

3.4.4 The learner's general cultural knowledge

Tarp (2008: 141) suggests that the general cultural knowledge of the learner has implications for lemma selection, preparation of explanations, possible cultural comments, structure, metalanguage and symbols used in the dictionary. This is true, given that languages are both products and vehicles of culture. Young learners may require more assistance of a cultural nature because their general cultural knowledge would be low in both their native and additional languages. The important point to underline would be that great awareness of the learner's general cultural knowledge will enable the lexicographer to supply solutions that will increase the functional value and user-friendliness of the dictionary. Dictionary culture may also be considered an important consideration in this respect.

3.4.5 The learner's knowledge of culture in the foreign-language area

In addition to general cultural knowledge, Tarp (2008: 142) underlines the importance of the culture of the foreign-language area concerned, "including how remote this culture is from the homeland of the users in question". This needs to be considered in

learners' dictionaries so that optimum support towards the learning of the concerned language is provided. As far as this dissertation is concerned, there is a definite gap between English culture and the indigenous Zimbabwean cultures that are associated with indigenous languages. However, English has also acquired some of the aspects of indigenous cultures in Zimbabwe and many other aspects that are not of British origin. Depending on the level of the learners, these need to be carefully considered in dictionaries for Zimbabwean learners.

3.4.6 The learner's reasons for learning a foreign language

According to Tarp (2008: 143), the reasons for learning a new language has implications for the language learning process and need to be taken into account in the compilation of dictionaries. For Zimbabweans, the reasons for learning English primarily have to do with the country's language policy. It is the main language of education, employment, business, law, politics, etc, and it should be learnt as a matter of necessity (see 1.1). For these reasons, an undertaking that intends to facilitate the learning of the language is likely to be received positively by the learners. English lexicography in Zimbabwe may benefit from this, but there are other factors which need to be considered so that the products themselves are really functional and user-friendly for specific users in specific situations.

3.4.7 The learner's own attitude to the foreign language learning process

Tarp (2008: 143-144) discusses whether language learning is conscious or spontaneous. The former may take place either as an individually planned and completed study, or in relation to a specific didactic system or existing textbook. The latter is somehow unsystematic. Tarp (2008: 144) notes that both conscious and spontaneous learning may overlap in a learner's overall language learning process. For lexicography, what is important is whether a dictionary may cover the needs that arise in the context of a conscious study or spontaneous learning. The integration of a dictionary into a textbook and the development of a data distribution structure and a cross-reference structure need to be cognisant of these factors. However, these considerations need to be made in view of other factors such as the age, level of additional language skills, dictionary skills, etc. This will be considered between

Chapter Five and Chapter Seven, noting that this dissertation mainly focuses on the conscious study of English as a school subject.

3.4.8 The learner's geographical location during the learning process

The geographical location of the learner during the language learning process determines the learner's exposure to the language in question as well as other languages, including the mother tongue. This may either be within or outside the native environment of the language concerned. According to Tarp (2008), the two different locations require different planning regarding lemma selection. Besides that, the communicative situations in the different locations will influence the selection of other data categories. In the case of Zimbabwe, English is a language of foreign origin that is mainly reserved for formal usage and learners mainly encounter this language at school. As it shall emerge in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, some critical decisions in the compilation of some existing English dictionaries have been too localised in the countries where the dictionaries have been published despite the fact that they are also sold in other countries such as Zimbabwe. This motivates the idea of localisation of English lexicography in Chapter Seven.

3.4.9 The learner's use of the mother tongue during the learning process

While the geographical location of the learner during the learning process determines the amount of exposure to the language in question, thereby affecting the learning process, as shown above, it also determines the exposure to other languages, including the mother tongue. According to Tarp (2008: 145), the learner's use of the mother tongue may have negative consequences in the form of "undesired mixed bilingualism". However, Tarp goes on to argue that these problems cannot be solved by learners' dictionaries. Rather, efforts should be made through the education system, for instance, "to promote conscious foreign-language learning instead of spontaneous learning" (Tarp 2008: 145). Then learners' dictionaries should be designed to support such efforts by "concentrating on the foreign-language system instead of bilingual comparisons between the mother tongue and the foreign language concerned" (Tarp 2008: 145). This is highly relevant for the learning of English in Zimbabwe since the majority of learners use their mother tongue more consistently at home and, to some extent, at school. Furthermore, devising bilingual solutions for

learners should be carefully considered to ensure that the sight of the genuine purpose of a dictionary in question is not lost, i.e. supporting the acquisition and use of English.

3.4.10 The learner's use of a specific didactic method

It is important to take into account the didactic methods that characterise the learning of the language in question in a specific area. The methods may be unattractive and perhaps retrogressive as far as language learning is concerned. However, Tarp (2008) stresses that lexicography should not interfere with language learning but rather support it. He writes:

> The task of lexicography is (and should be) to explore the actual foreign-language learning process, including the method actually used by potential users, and to produce dictionaries that support this process (Tarp 2008: 145).

This is notably in the spirit of the lexicographical function theory which focuses on the needs of specific users in specific situations rather than reformulating situations. From that angle, the lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe should pay very close attention to the way in which the language is acquired through the education system. This dissertation is first and foremost a contribution to Zimbabwean lexicography and English lexicography whose conclusions are, however, meant to benefit the study of English in the country.

3.4.11 The learner's use of a specific textbook or a didactic system

In connection with 3.4.9 and 3.4.10 above, part of the user analysis for learners' lexicography should pay attention to the specific textbooks and the specific didactic system that constitute the learning of the language in question. It should aim to address the needs experienced by learners based on the relevant textbooks or didactic system. Tarp (2008: 146) indicates that the lemma selection of the relevant dictionaries should be based on the relevant textbooks and he envisions that dictionaries should be integrated into the textbooks and be designed according to modern lexicographical criteria. This is also consistent with the lexicographical function theory in the sense that, through lexicography, efforts are made to satisfy the needs of specific users (learners) in specific situations (learning the language using specific textbooks and a specific didactic system. Accordingly, the English syllabi of

Zimbabwe, school textbooks as well as past examination papers at both the primary and secondary school levels were carefully studied and used as the basis foridentifying the situations and needs of English learners in Zimbabwe.

3.4.12 The learner's learning of a specific subject at the same time

It is important to consider whether the language-learning process is related to the learning of certain subjects. In such cases, which applies to Zimbabwe where English is the medium of teaching and learning of all the subjects excluding indigenous languages, not only general language competence but also academic, professional, specialised language will be the target of language learning. Thus the user situations exceed the context of the learning of the language as a school subject to also include those that characterise the use of the language in the learning of other subjects.

3.5 Conclusion

While the importance of lexicographical theory in the context of modern lexicography has been reiterated by previous scholars (cf. Gouws and Prinsloo 2005, Tarp 2008), it was incumbent upon this chapter to partake in a discussion that affirms not only the need but also the existence of lexicographical theory. As far as the present study is concerned, lexicographical theory is a reality that is dynamic rather than rigid. It is a reality that is not being realised by all the members of the lexicographical community. Even those scholars who realise it can only articulate the theory depending on their orientation, with some of them having been primarily linguists, for instance. This means that at the moment there may be no general theory of lexicography that satisfies the entire lexicographical community. Thus a theoretical framework can at best draw from different accounts of the theory despite the fact that the focal elements of the different accounts will differ. However, there should be a common ground. In the case of Wiegand's general theory of lexicography and Bergenholtz and Tarp's lexicographical function theory, the common ground is that lexicography is not linguistics since its subject matter is constituted by dictionaries and their production, in addition to the fact that dictionaries are utility tools produced to satisfy practical problems experienced by different societies. In that case, the application of those theories will have to be cognisant of the specific societies in which dictionaries are needed, produced or discussed. In this regard, the discussion of English lexicography

in Zimbabwe definitely determines the extent of the application of the chosen theoretical expressions. This chapter has indicated that while both Wiegand's theory and the lexicographical function theory are complementarily relevant, they may not be adopted completely. It is on that account that they are applied in the remaining chapters of this dissertation, the main points of which have been made in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE USER PERSPECTIVE OF ENGLISH DICTIONARIES IN ZIMBABWE

4.0 Introduction

So far no effort, be it practical or theoretical, has been directed to any aspect of English lexicography or an English dictionary, to say the least, from a Zimbabwean perspective. Zimbabwean lexicography has thus far been viewed from the perspective of African languages. Based on the findings of this research, the picture has thus far been incomplete. The dictionary culture of Zimbabweans and their lexicographical needs have not been comprehensively investigated. This chapter seeks to establish a Zimbabwean user perspective regarding English dictionaries. The key to such an endeavour is the characterisation of Zimbabweans as English learners, and hence potential users of English dictionaries. After this various factors which turn these users into actual users and dictionary use are considered. These include the general perceptions and perspectives of Zimbabweans regarding dictionaries and the availability of dictionaries. Further to these factors, the chapter will consider the experiences of Zimbabweans with regard to English dictionaries. The material presented in this chapter was established through an online questionnaire-survey, focus group discussions with teachers, librarians, bookshop assistants and managers, managers of publishing houses based in Zimbabwe, library research and secondary sources (see Chapter Two).

4.1 Zimbabweans as English learners and users of English dictionaries

The main objective of this section is to characterise Zimbabweans as English learners and hence potential users of English dictionaries. The characterisation is meant to provide a theoretical basis which determines their competences and English acquisition needs which may be addressed by dictionaries. As shown in 3.4, this is in line with the lexicographical function theory which posits the importance of user characterisation in both practical and theoretical lexicography (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp 1995; 2003, Tarp 2000; 2004; 2008). In terms of Tarp (2008: 137), both inner and outer criteria are considered in the characterisation of Zimbabweans, bringing to the fore the twelve critical questions of which the relevance was discussed in 3.4, namely:

- What is the mother tongue of the learner?
- To what extent does the learner master their mother tongue?
- To what extent does the learner master English?
- How great is the learner's general cultural knowledge?
- How great is the learner's knowledge of English culture?
- Why does the learner have to learn English?
- Does the English learning process take place spontaneously or consciously?
- Is English being learnt within or outside the English native area?
- Is the learner exposed to their mother tongue during the learning process?
- Does the learner use a specific textbook or didactic system?
- Does the learner use a specific didactic method?
- Is the learning process related to a specific subject?

The significance of each of the above questions was explained in 3.4. The exposition in the background chapter also sheds light on the issues that some of the questions investigate. Accordingly, the questions will not be addressed individually, but the subsequent subsections will address the questions in order to characterise Zimbabwean English learners belonging in the three categories of beginners, intermediate learners and advanced learners.

4.1.1 English beginners in Zimbabwe

It has already been indicated that in Zimbabwe English is largely acquired formally through education. Based on the country's education system and its language-in-education policy, English beginners are primary school pupils between Grade 1 and Grade 3. According to the Education Act (see 1.1.2.4), English should be taught as a subject from Grade 1 upwards, alongside other subjects such as mathematics, religious studies and indigenous languages.

The foregoing then begs for the explanation as to why the third grade is taken as the upper tier for English beginners. From Grade 1 to 3, the language-in-education policy provides for mother-tongue medium, before the English medium takes over from the fourth grade, in the teaching of subjects other than the indigenous languages. This means that the teaching of English as a subject up to Grade 3 is meant to develop the competence that would form the basis for the English-only medium which is adopted from Grade 4. Logically, pupils before the fourth grade are expected to have lower competence in English.

English beginners in Zimbabwe, who have been identified as pupils between Grade 1 and Grade 3 above, fall between the ages of six and nine years. Before Grade 1, their knowledge of the world is largely shaped by informal learning, together with the acquisition of native languages. In addition to the informal learning experience from home, all Grade 1 entrants since 2006 have been Grade 0 graduates. Grade 0 was formally introduced to end the monopoly of expensive private pre-schools and day-care facilities so that about 20% Grade 1 learners would have pre-school learning experience (Machingaidze, Pfukani and Shumba 1998: 6). In essence, Grade 0 is meant for social and psychological preparation of children for formal education. Literacy development, through which English acquisition is mainly developed, is not a major component at this level.

Although Grade 1 pupils are able to express themselves in the native languages, they do so in the form of simple sentences as their vocabulary and language skills are still limited. The school also plays a very significant part in the acquisition of indigenous languages. It may also be added that the pupils come from diverse socio-cultural and linguistic backgrounds. While the majority of pupils speak Shona and Ndebele, which are also taught as the main indigenous languages throughout the school system, as native languages, there are others whose mother tongue is neither of the two but one of the minority languages. Thus, English learning at this stage will normally occur together with the learning of another indigenous language which is also an additional language.

As far as English is concerned, some Grade 1 pupils may have learnt very limited vocabulary and expressions related to greetings, requests, apologies, etc. in Grade 0 or

in their homes. However, they would still be illiterate in it. It is in Grade 1 that vocabulary, and oral and literacy skills would be consciously developed as the beginning of a life-long academic, social and professional development. Their limited cognitive and linguistic characteristics will have implications for their lexicographical needs as they are thrust into formal English acquisition and use situations, while their lack of lexicographical experience will need to be considered in any prospective solutions. This will be shown in Chapter Five.

4.1.2 Intermediate learners

The characterisation of Grade 3 pupils downwards as English beginners in 4.1.1 marks Grade 4 as the beginning of the intermediate level of English learning in Zimbabwe. That is not problematic, since in Grade 4, unlike before, English is not only a school subject but also a medium of instruction. If that is acceptable, then exactly until what educational level should Zimbabweans be regarded as English intermediate learners? This question has serious implications for lexicography. Each language learning category is characterised by its own specific challenges which may be solved by different lexicographical solutions. What needs to be noted, however, is that each category is not made up of homogeneous learners. Accordingly, it should be emphasised that lexicographical solutions are devised around the typical learner who is the potential dictionary user.

At this juncture, reference is made to the lexicographically-relevant definition of intermediate learners. The definition, according to Tarp (2004; 2008), should consider both text reception and text production as the most important situations of language learning. Accordingly, intermediate learners are defined in terms of reception as:

> …learners who can understand a simple foreign-language explanation based on a reduced vocabulary (Tarp 2008: 140).

Then as far as text production is concerned, intermediate learners are defined as:

> …learners who to some extent think and produce texts directly in the foreign language, but who are forced to use an original in their mother tongue in some situations (Tarp 2008: 141).

The fact that Grade 4 learners are taught using the English medium qualifies their categorisation as intermediate learners. Notwithstanding a variety of factors which affect the acquisition of additional language skills, the pupils receive their instruction in all the subjects other than the indigenous languages in English. Given that the English-only medium is supposedly used at this stage for the first time, it follows that their understanding must be based on basic and reduced vocabulary, most of it probably acquired over the first three years. In their new context, Grade 4 pupils are supposed to respond in English to the situations which require either verbal or written responses. However, it goes without saying that they will still resort to the mother tongue for oral text production in some cases. On this account, the language-in-education policy and the prevailing practices in the education system accurately situate Grade 4 pupils in the intermediate English learner category. That will be the bottom tier of English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe.

Having established the bottom tier of English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe, it is still necessary to determine the top tier. This will facilitate the delimitation of the full scope of potential users, user characteristics, their situations, typical problems regarding English and the relevant kinds of lexicographical assistance that the dissertation seeks to formulate. Whatever their specific characteristics in their diversity, intermediate learners generally include all language learners between beginners and advanced levels. Therefore, Tarp's (2008) typology of learners will be used again, particularly the definition of advanced learners, to determine the upper tier of English intermediate learners. The focus is of course not yet on the advanced learners (see 4.1.3 below), but the definition of advanced learners will help in marking the point at which learners post-Grade 4 cease to be intermediate learners, assuming that they would have fulfilled the expectations of their age and level of education regarding English.

Advanced learners are also defined in terms of reception and production as follows:

> *Advanced* learners are learners who are able to understand complex explanations in the foreign language.
>
> *Advanced* learners are learners who primarily think and produce texts directly in the foreign language (Tarp 2008: 141).

In Zimbabwe, the best indicator that one is an advanced learner of English would be an 'O' Level English pass. This demonstrates that the learner has "acquired a considerable active and passive vocabulary, assimilated the general grammar of the language" such that he/she can think and express himself/herself freely in this language, which is the main requirement proffered by Tarp (2004: 227). On the basis of Tarp's (2008) typology of language learners, all Zimbabwean school learners up to Form 4 are either beginners or intermediate learners of English. However, this is only a case of convenience which is not unproblematic. Regarding intermediate learners in particular, it may be reasoned that for some of them the 'O' Level English examinations only serve to confirm the advanced learner competence which may have been attained over the last two or more years of previous schooling. While the experience of the previous years remains important, the last two, namely Forms 3 and 4, are meant to consciously prepare learners for the 'O' Level examinations. This means that as far as English is concerned, efforts of helping learners achieve the advanced learner competence fall within these two years.

The major problem with the argument in the previous paragraph arises when we factor in the junior secondary level examinations which were discontinued almost a decade ago. Those examinations resulted in the attainment of the Zimbabwe Junior Certificate (ZJC). It has to be stated that their discontinuation did not have much to do with the uselessness of the certificate. The examinations would provide a measure of how the students had successfully made a transition from primary to secondary education. Their discontinuation was mainly a result of an ailing economy which could no longer sustain the provision of public services such as education and health. As far as English is concerned, a ZJC pass would at best be regarded as the competence of an intermediate learner. This could possibly help categorise those learners who used to pass English at ZJC level but go on to fail it at 'O' Level. In that context, those learners would remain intermediate learners despite having undergone tuition towards being advanced learners. Yet there were others who would fail English at ZJC but go on to pass it at 'O' Level. ZJC had no bearing on one's progress to 'O' Level. In that case, it may probably be claimed that although some learners may be ready to be regarded as advanced learners of English before getting the relevant 'O' Level qualification, it is not really easy to pin-point the school level

where advanced level competence is assumed. This may depend on a variety of factors such as those identified by Mlambo (2002), which include the learner's exposure to English at home and the type of school attended. Nevertheless, this is more relevant to language acquisition studies than lexicography and the general framework within which English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe have been situated suffices for our purpose. The task now shall be to characterise the learners carefully within this framework in a way that facilitates the identification of their lexicographical needs regarding English.

One important observation that needs to be made immediately regarding English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe is that this category is the broadest. This may also apply to other countries where English is taught as an additional language throughout the school system. Children start school as English beginners and become intermediate learners once they assimilate and activate basic vocabulary and grammar rules. However, it tends to take much longer for the learners to become advanced learners. This has implications for lexicography with respect to the intermediate phase. The potential users are diverse in terms of age and level of education. In turn, this has definite implications for the lexicographical situations and needs of the users. The diversity of the potential users within this very broad category of English intermediate learners implies that a system of different dictionaries will be required to meet their different needs.

From Grade 4 up to Form 4, it is possible to identify cardinal points at which quantitative changes which have qualitative impacts on the development of English language skills occur. On the basis of those points, at least three sub-categories of intermediate English learners may be established. The resultant learner sub-categories will be called lower-intermediate, middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners. The cardinal points and the resultant sub-categories of learners are not arbitrary. They are based on a close observation of the manner in which English is taught and used, as reflected in the English syllabi and past examination papers. In a general way, the sub-categories of intermediate learners may be characterised as follows:

- lower-intermediate English learners – Grade 4 to Grade 7
- middle-intermediate English learners – Form 1 and Form 2
- upper-intermediate English learners – Form 3 and Form 4

Although the above distinctions are based on identifiable changes in the way that English is used and taught within each of the above sub-categories, it should not be forgotten that two important aspects regarding the position of English in the country's language-in-education policy are shared. These are that it is taught as a subject and used as a medium of instruction in all the subjects besides indigenous languages. Together with other shared user characteristics, these have an important bearing on the lexicographical discussion about the needs of users regarding English and the lexicographical decisions that should be taken to address the needs.

When it comes to the user characteristics, it needs to be pointed out that factors such as native languages, cultural background and reasons for learning English remain the same as those of beginners. However, their competences in those aspects are expected to have improved with age and the amount of education they would have acquired as from Grade 4. Assuming that they had been introduced to dictionaries as beginners, they would have developed dictionary skills and a dictionary culture. Unfortunately, as it shall emerge in this study, dictionary culture at schools is generally low, meaning that the dictionaries which have to be produced with more demanding user situations in mind need not to have very sophisticated structures. The dictionaries would still need to be self-educative, especially for the lower-intermediate learners. Nevertheless, intermediate learners would have more capacity to develop such skills that the same amount of dictionary education will not be needed to introduce Grade 1 learners and Grade 4 learners to dictionary use.

What set apart these sub-categories of intermediate English learners are the objectives of teaching the subject and the skills that are ultimately achieved. Accordingly, we shall therefore highlight some of those differences to clarify that the needs of these potential users will definitely require a system of several dictionaries to support their English needs.

To motivate the sub-category English lower-intermediate learners in Zimbabwe as constituting of school pupils between Grades 4 and 7, we consider the fact that in

addition to the introduction of the compulsory English-only medium in Grade 4, Grade 7 provides the first real major test in the language. Public examinations in English, Content (General Paper) and Mathematics may reflect on the impacts of the role of English in the country's language-in-education policy and practices. The learners' achievements or failure may, to some extent, be related to their English competences. It is not unusual for some learners to pass only one subject at Grade 7, that subject being an indigenous language. In such cases, it cannot be coincidental that learners fail in those subjects in which English is the medium of instruction. As a form of a lexicographical intervention, a number of dictionaries whose titles indicate that they are targeted at primary schools may be considered (see Chapters Six), as long as they are not targeted exclusively at the lower grades discussed in 4.1.1. Besides, the need to carefully consider the contents and methods of presentation in such dictionaries, which is done in Chapter Six, the internal progressive variations in the characteristics and user situations of lower-intermediate English learners may need to be taken into account. An important cue may be taken from the Grade 6 and Grade 7 English syllabi which advise on a practical shift in the teaching of English with regards to functional objectives, language structures and language skills. For instance, the Grade 6 syllabus expressly states that:

> From Grade 1-5 the syllabus included both Functional Objectives and Skills Objectives. Particular language structures … were tied to the Functional Objectives in a series of Core Syllabus Units.
>
> For Grades 6 and 7 the system changes. It is unrealistic at this level to tie all new structures to particular functions.

The emphasis on the shift that occurs in Grade 6 is repeated in the Grade 7 syllabus. That the system changes in Grade 6 does not, however, mean that the learners who have previously been intermediate learners suddenly become advanced English learners. Neither does it invalidate our classification of Grade 4 learners as intermediate learners of English. Instead, the changes in Grade 6, which are essentially quantitative in the sense that the former grades deal with "particular language structures" while others are reserved for Grade 6 and 7 merit consideration by teachers, textbook writers and publishers. Lexicography also needs to take heed of the changes as both information and warning signs. This means that although Grade 4 to Grade 7 learners were conveniently sub-categorised as lower-intermediate learners,

they may still require different lexicographical support in their English learning and usage.

The changes from Grade 7 to Form 1, i.e. lower-intermediate to middle-intermediate English learners according to our sub-categorisation, are more transparent mainly due to the introduction of more subjects which are taught in English. Besides that, the teaching of English as a subject also acquires additional tasks and teaching objectives. For example, literature becomes a compulsory component of the syllabus. This means that the learners have to cope with more challenges and at the same time improve their competence level if they are to stay abreast. Previously, a learner who passed English at ZJC level could be regarded as an intermediate learner whose next challenge would be achieving the advanced learner competence by studying further and obtaining an 'O' Level English pass. Thus, a learner who is yet to pass 'O' Level may still be regarded as an intermediate English learner, albeit in a different sub-category, hence the justification for establishing the upper-intermediate learner sub-category as constituting of Form 3 and Form 4 learners. This may be further clarified by their situations of English learning and usage (see 6.1).

4.1.3 Advanced learners

Based on the definition of an advanced learner formulated by Tarp (2004; 2008) and cited in 4.1.2 above, it has already been indicated that English advanced learners in Zimbabwe would be those individuals who have passed English as a subject at 'O' Level. Together with the other relevant subjects, an English pass at this level does not only qualify one for enrolment for 'A' Level, but also for post-'A' Level professional and academic training as well as employment in areas where both academic and professional qualifications are required. This means that no further language proficiency skills are consciously taught after obtaining the 'O' Level pass in English. The individuals are expected to function efficiently in English and any further skills may continue to develop as part of life-long learning. As Tarp (2004: 227) puts it, these learners would have achieved what may be regarded as near-native proficiency, which may be the ultimate level given that they may never be regarded as native speakers of the acquired language.

Accordingly, English advanced learners in Zimbabwe do not require a specifically Zimbabwean lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of the language. They should be able to use a variety of general-purpose English dictionaries, advanced learners' dictionaries and specialised dictionaries in their fields, which are already abundantly available. While the limitations of some of those dictionaries may upset the consultation procedure and leave the user unsatisfied, the language skills may not be reversed. English advanced learners in Zimbabwe would continue enjoying the opportunities that are associated with their linguistic competence. The intervention is needed especially for English beginners and intermediate learners so that they could also be advanced learners. Therefore, as the dissertation develops in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, attention is specifically given to the lexicographical needs of English beginners and intermediate learners. However, the general user perspective regarding English lexicography in Zimbabwe would be incomplete if it totally ignored the advanced learners, their previous and present experiences with English and English dictionaries, as well as their opinions on the potential of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of this language. Therefore, the remainder of this chapter presents and analyses material which includes the findings of a questionnaire survey that focused on advanced learners.

4.2 General perceptions and perspectives about dictionaries

Hartmann and James (1998: 41) define *dictionary culture* as "the critical awareness of the value and limitations of dictionaries and other reference works in a particular community". The concept of dictionary culture is important for both lexicographical research and lexicographical practice. When engaging in lexicographical research, with such objectives as determining the reference needs and reference skills of a community, or determining the user-friendliness of certain dictionaries (dictionary criticism), the knowledge of the community's dictionary culture would provide a solid foundation for the research's conclusions. On the other hand, a practicing lexicographer would benefit from such knowledge as it would guide certain decisions in the planning and actual compilation of dictionaries.

Not much has been written about Zimbabwean dictionary culture. Reference to dictionary culture in Zimbabwe is clearly made only in Hadebe (2004) as well as Maphosa and Nkomo (2009). Hadebe (2004: 89) presents "the long aim of developing a dictionary culture amongst the Ndebele", arguing that "user-friendliness is difficult to attain ... in a community where ... dictionary culture is non-existent" (Hadebe 2004: 90). Hadebe's discussion underlines a lack of dictionary culture in the Zimbabwean Ndebele community. An analysis of dictionary use, skills and ownership, among other aspects, by Maphosa and Nkomo (2009), also confirms "the infancy of a dictionary-using culture in the Ndebele community" (Maphosa and Nkomo 2009: 45). It needs to be noted that these two studies were undertaken from a largely Ndebele lexicographical perspective, i.e. evaluating the first monolingual Ndebele dictionary with a view to developing the culture in order to improve both future lexicographical practice and dictionary use in the language. However, Maphosa and Nkomo (2009) observe:

> Although the ... community is not accustomed to Ndebele dictionaries, it has nevertheless used English dictionaries. Secondary school students could even name some English dictionaries they have consulted. The ... need for ... information ... from English dictionaries ... is part of the dictionary culture of the Ndebele community (Maphosa and Nkomo 2009: 45).

Therefore, while their research was done from the perspective of Ndebele lexicography, Maphosa and Nkomo (2009: 42) observe that "English dictionaries seem to be an integral part of the dictionary-using culture in the Ndebele community". As long as dictionary culture remains investigated from language-specific perspectives, certain facts may remain concealed or obscure. Accordingly, this section considers some aspects of dictionary culture, paying direct and more attention to the use of English dictionaries, whose need and role in Zimbabwe may be very different compared to Shona and Ndebele dictionaries which serve in languages with limited roles.

The aspects of dictionary culture presented here are largely the same as those discussed in Maphosa and Nkomo (2009), with the exception of two differences. Firstly, this study pays direct attention to English dictionaries whose use in Maphosa and Nkomo (2009) was explored in passing, 'for interest sake'. Secondly, this study

involved participants from different professions and speaking different native languages unlike the previous one which focused on Ndebele students. While Ndebele students were expected to have a direct interest in a Ndebele dictionary, all students and professionals in Zimbabwe are expected to consult or benefit from using English dictionaries.

4.2.1 The perceptions of a dictionary

The first question that confronted the participants in the online survey read as follows:

What is your understanding of *a dictionary*?

All but two respondents attempted to define or describe a dictionary in their responses. According to one of the two (PV), the question was vague. "Probably you want to know what people understand to be the use of dictionaries or why dictionaries are important" (PV). This suggestion is highly presumptuous. Firstly, the respondent assumes that the idea of a dictionary is so simple that it does not warrant investigating. This is only true if we speak of *the dictionary*, which according to Ilson (1985: 1) is conceptualised in the same way. As far as lexicography is concerned, such an assumption is problematic because the notion of a dictionary is like what different blind people would perceive of an elephant after touching its different organs. Secondly, the response suggests that knowing a dictionary means simply knowing its use and importance. Again, this is equally problematic because one may know something without using it, or use something without knowing it well enough to use it optimally. For lexicography, that would be extremely unfortunate. Therefore, the question might be vague, but it is more purposeful rather than vague. Of course, it is not to be expected that the participants would provide a specialist or academic definition of *dictionary*, but would indicate their awareness of its various formats and uses. This would constitute their critical awareness of dictionaries and the existence of a dictionary culture.

All the participants in the questionnaire survey know at least two things about dictionaries. This includes what it is, what it does or provides and at times how it does what it does. Thus the responses to the first question could be broken into at least two

main parts; the first basically stating what a dictionary is and the second specifying it according to function. For example, PB understands a dictionary as "a book that explains meanings of words and guides you towards proper pronunciation". This explanation tells us the following:

i) A dictionary is a book
ii) A dictionary explains and guides ...
iii) A dictionary provides information on meanings and pronunciation

By analysing different responses to the first question, it is possible to gauge the participants' knowledge about dictionaries. Table 1 below summarises the participants' ideas of a dictionary according to (i) above.

A dictionary is	Percentage of all respondents
- a book ...	50
- a reference ...	10.9
- an instrument	6.5
- a tool ...	2.2
- a resource	2.2
Others	28.2

Table 1: What a dictionary is to Zimbabweans according to the online questionnaire survey

The table indicates that many Zimbabweans know a dictionary as a book, a reference, an instrument, etc. These denominations may not simply be taken as matters of differences in language usage. They reflect each participant's knowledge about dictionaries and their formats. For example, PP who defines a dictionary as "a reference item" explains in brackets that he/she is "avoiding book because it comes in various media". Interestingly, among the *others* who constitute 28.2% of the respondents is PU who uses "media" as the *genus* of his/her definition of *dictionary*. This means that the majority of Zimbabweans (50% of the survey participants) understand a dictionary as a book due to the fact that paper dictionaries have dominated the history of lexicography and their community. Those who define a

dictionary as a reference, an instrument, a tool, etc, may be aware of the latest dictionary formats. However, some of them may actually be using those terms not necessarily to include other formats such as the electronic or cell-phone dictionary, but simply to underline the functions of the dictionary, even in its paper format, as a work of reference, an instrument, a tool or a resource. At least, with the benefit of doubt, it may be said that they have a broader understanding of a dictionary as an object.

From the second parts of the definitions provided by the respondents as they explained their ideas of a dictionary, one could formulate a question which pertains to what dictionaries do, ought to do or are known or presumed to do. Here, all sorts of appreciative action words such as *guides*, *gives, assists*, *supplies*, *enables* etc, in addition to *lists*, *explains* and *defines*, are used to describe what dictionaries do with regard to words, meaning and other aspects of language and knowledge. The appreciative action words are further seen as indications of the respondents' personal opinions and experiences about the value of dictionaries in 4.2.2.

In the analysis of the responses to the first question, attention was also paid to the kinds of information that respondents associate with dictionaries. The following information types were explicitly stated in the responses and they are listed according to their frequency.

- Meaning
- Pronunciation
- Usage information
- Spelling
- Synonyms
- Etymology
- Morphology
- Antonyms

Zimbabweans seem to be aware of the different kinds of information that can be obtained from general dictionaries. Expectedly, meaning takes precedence. PQ defines a dictionary in two sentences, with the second reiterating that "It's a book about (?) meaning". Yet it needs to be pointed out that some respondents may actually know more than the information types they listed as what dictionaries

provide, as they used expressions which suggest that they were giving examples: *such as*, *including* and *etc*.

From the foregoing, the questionnaire survey managed to solicit Zimbabweans' ideas about a dictionary. If the knowledge of a dictionary could be taken as evidence of dictionary culture, then it could be claimed that Zimbabweans have a good dictionary culture. However, this is not the case since some respondents think they do not need dictionaries. Besides, the respondents constitute of those potential English dictionary users who have been classified as advanced learners in 4.1.3 above. The observations made during focus group discussions at schools paint a different picture whereby some secondary school students know absolutely nothing about dictionaries.

4.2.2 Awareness of the value of dictionaries

Seven of the questions that were asked in the questionnaire solicited responses which indicated, among other things, the participants' awareness or disregard of the value of dictionaries. These are the questions:

- Do you think a dictionary is important? Why?
- Do you use a dictionary?
- How frequently do you use a dictionary?
- What do you use a dictionary for?
- Do you benefit from using a dictionary?
- Do you own a dictionary as a family?
- Do you own your personal dictionary?

All the participants responded to the first of the above questions and there was unanimity that dictionaries are important. Its importance, according to those who went on to answer the why part of the question, seems to be two-fold. Firstly, the importance of dictionaries is based on the linguistic deficiencies or limitations of man. This is exemplified in the following two responses:

> No one man can command vocabulary with all words and phrases, and diction (PA).
>
> We can't entirely rely on our intuition or knowledge of the words (PI).

From such responses, it may be inferred that the dictionary is assumed to be the opposite of man regarding reliability of its knowledge base. The only problem, though, is the linguistic bias in the responses, assuming that man has to use a dictionary solely because of his linguistic deficiencies or limitations. This casts a negative light on the dictionary culture.

The second basis of the importance of dictionaries is related to the first one which, however, was not explicitly cited by most respondents, but probably assumed. These respondents find the importance of dictionaries in the information types that can be retrieved from them and the impacts they make when they are consulted. In a way, such responses build on those that see the importance of dictionaries being that their users have linguistic deficiencies. Thus, in addition to mentioning the different kinds of information that dictionaries are valued for providing, appreciative action words such as *help*, *improve*, *gives*, *explains*, *serves*, *assists*, etc., are used to describe the positive impact of dictionaries in language acquisition and usage (See 4.2.1). It suffices to add, however, that as far as these responses are concerned, dictionaries are seen as more than linguistic arbiters to man's deficiencies. Three respondents captured this in their responses quoted below:

> For the acquisition if (*sic*) knowledge and languages ... (PL)
>
> ... allows us to communicate effectively and improves our knowledge when we use it (PDi).
>
> ... we need a dictionary to preserve our culture for we express culture through our language (PGi).

These responses indicate that dictionaries are not only used as linguistic tools but also for cognitive purposes. This resonates with McArthur (1998) who views dictionaries as akin to the human brain but with more memory. He writes:

> ... lexicography is part – and an important part – of that interplay of technology and taxonomy which has helped our species to find means of storing information beyond the brain, our first and for an enormous length of time our only container of knowledge (McArthur 1998: 150).

At this stage, there is not doubt that English advanced learners in Zimbabwe are aware of the value of dictionaries. However, there is a problem that people may know the value of something and yet fail to utilise or treasure it. Hence the participants in

the questionnaire survey were further asked if they themselves use dictionaries. They were also asked about frequency and reasons of dictionary use and whether they own family or personal dictionaries. These questions were hoped to reflect the extent to which individuals consider dictionaries as important.

A few problems regarding the analysis of responses to some of the questions need pointing out. Firstly, out of the 46 questionnaire survey participants, 43 responded to the question enquiring about whether or not they use dictionaries. Secondly, the frequency grades *never*, *monthly*, *fortnightly*, *weekly* and *daily* were found to be too rigid to match the actual frequencies of dictionary use by certain respondents who preferred to use *often*, *occasionally*, *regularly* and *rarely*, but in the context of the next question which enquired about reasons for dictionary use, as illustrated below:

> Often. ... to check up words that I encounter in my researches and writings (PHi).
>
> Regularly. To check on spellings, appropriate word usage, and pronunciations (*sic*) (PGi).
>
> Occasionally, for looking up definitions and correct usage of terms (PZ).
>
> Rarely use. I just go on the internet these days (PBi).

This means that the statistics in the automatically generated survey report need to be read with great care in connection with the respondents' frequency of dictionary use, since in addition to the 33 who are reported to have responded to the frequency question, others provided the frequency information as they responded to the next question. The third problem pertains to contradictions in some individuals' responses to closely related questions. For example, when the only respondent who claims not to use a dictionary names two dictionaries when responding to a later question that requires the participants to name dictionaries that they have used. Thus, the analysis had to consider these problems before determining the importance of dictionaries as far as Zimbabweans are concerned.

Although 43 of the 46 participants responded to the question asking them if they use dictionaries, the actual number should be higher if the contradiction in the responses of the only one who claimed not to use the dictionary is considered. Furthermore, 43 participants responded in the affirmative when later on asked if they benefit from

dictionary use, implying that they might have missed the question of whether they use dictionaries. The frequency of dictionary use among those who claim to use dictionaries is reasonably high. 45% of the 33 who gave scaled frequency information claimed to use dictionaries on a daily basis, 30% claiming to consult dictionaries on a weekly basis and the remaining 24% use dictionaries on a monthly basis. Among those who probably found the scale too apt to match their frequencies and provided frequency information when responding to the next question, one respondent claimed to use a dictionary very often, three often, one regularly while four said they rarely use dictionaries. One of those who rarely use dictionaries simply said "I simply go to the internet ...", not aware that what he/she consults on the internet is an electronic version of the traditional paper dictionary.

The top four information types which were provided as reasons for dictionary use match the top four provided as parts of the descriptions/definitions of a dictionary, however, in a slightly different order. The need for meaning is the most frequent motivation for dictionary use, followed by spelling, usage information and pronunciation, whereas the initial order was meaning, pronunciation, usage and spelling (see 4.2.1). This should not be a problem if it is borne in mind that the initial order resulted from the characterisation of a dictionary. While the respondents would list all the information types they associate with dictionaries, the latter order results from the information types which they look up. This means that the respondents do not use dictionaries for all the information types despite being aware of their provision. A closer look at the latter order suggests that Zimbabweans use dictionaries mainly for literary functions, i.e. writing and reading as opposed to speaking. This would explain the drop of pronunciation from second place in the initial order to the fourth. There are several explicit responses which may be used to confirm this thinking as illustrated below:

> In my line of work, I do a lot of writing, so I need to know the exact meanings of the words that I am using (PWi).
>
> Most of the time I use an electronic dictionary for spell checking my writing or that of others (PLi).

This is consistent with English teaching practices whereby "most Zimbabwean schools focus on reading and writing skills" (Kadenge et al 2009: 22). Even in

English for professional purposes, oral but never literary aspects may be compromised. Besides, the pronunciation of English in Zimbabwe has been heavily influenced by indigenous languages (Kadenge 2009, Kadenge et al 2009). Furthermore, the majority may not be able to retrieve pronunciation information as it is usually provided through the use of codes that require more linguistic skills.

In all their high regard for dictionaries, the participants seem justified by the 98% rate of the participants who claim to benefit from using dictionaries. However, 15 respondents indicated that they at times face challenges and do not benefit optimally. Still, the percentage of those who benefit is tremendous. It justifies why all the participants regard dictionaries as important. This perceived importance explains why 70% of the 43 respondents' families own dictionaries, while 73% of the 45 respondents own at least one personal dictionary. Among those who do not own family or personal dictionaries are of course those who claim not to need dictionaries. One respondent pointed out that dictionaries are expensive. The overall picture from the questionnaire survey remains clear; most Zimbabweans have a high regard for dictionaries. This is also confirmed by the focus group discussions at schools whereby students, especially at secondary and high schools, consult dictionaries despite discouragement by teachers, who are, in turn, simply doing that because the English syllabus is vague on the use of dictionaries (see 7.5.1).

4.2.3 Awareness of dictionary typology and specific dictionaries

Another aspect of dictionary culture that was investigated through the questionnaire is the awareness of dictionary typology. The participants were asked to respond to the following question:

What type(s) of dictionary do you know?

43 out of 46 participants responded to the question. 25 respondents were able to name at least one type of dictionary according to different criteria. This figure is impressive given that dictionary typology is quite problematic even for metalexicographers. It shows that as users of dictionaries, most respondents know which types of dictionaries may address certain problems.

Of the 18 respondents who could not name one type of a dictionary, there are the worst cases who are unaware that dictionaries are different and responded as follows:

> I didn't know that they are a variety they all do the same job for me (*sic*) (PT).
>
> Don't know what you mean by types ... I have used plenty of these English dictionaries ... (PMi).

To these respondents, any dictionary can do the job regardless of the situation and problem. This is unfortunate. It was not surprising to note that some of the respondents who gave such responses indicated that they often face challenges with some dictionaries which do not include the words they would be looking for, for instance. While a bad tree will obviously bear bad apples, a pear tree will not bear apples.

All the 46 respondents attempted to name specific dictionaries they either know or have used. Analysing responses to this question was quite problematic. Firstly, there are those who had attempted to name specific dictionaries instead of naming types when responding to the previous question. When it came to the question which requested them to name specific dictionaries, they would simply say 'See above'. Secondly, the majority were able to name trademark names but not specific dictionaries, which was basically the case in Maphosa and Nkomo (2009: 45) although it was deemed less problematic in that context. Therefore, while very few could mention the OED, 21 respondents listed the *Oxford Dictionary*. It cannot be ascertained if all the respondents were referring to the same dictionary. One respondent even named a *Collins Oxford Dictionary*! However, it can be claimed that many Zimbabweans do not know the specific dictionaries. Rather they know the names of famous dictionary publishers. This was also the case with teachers and students at schools (see 7.5.2). Yet again, this can be a problem for them in their pursuit of lexicographical assistance because it means that they would arbitrarily grab any Oxford-published dictionary regardless of its type and appropriateness for certain problems.

4.2.4 Challenges of dictionary use

The research also undertook to establish whether Zimbabweans face problems when using specific dictionaries. This was also largely done through the questionnaire

survey and to a lesser extent through focus group discussions at schools. All but one participant in the questionnaire survey responded to the question. 66% indicated that the dictionaries they have used do not give them problems at all while 34% indicated that they have been disappointed by some dictionaries. The following are some of the problems that were mentioned:

> The word meanings contextually seem not to be fully catered for, every society uses words in a particular way e.g. there is Zim English, S.A English etc. and so far that breadth and idiosyncrasy is yet to be captured (PE).
>
> Yes I find that the dictionaries may explain terms using complicated words which will need to be looked up again. Which makes searching for a word quite a mission (PX).
>
> Some dictionaries do not provide information that I will be looking for at a particular point in time. Sometimes even if they do, you only access the information after you have been tossed around from article to article (PP).
>
> At times in some dictionaries words are defined in a circular way such that as the reader you remain uninformed (PPi).

The above-listed problems may be summed up as generalisation, over-specification, circularity, use of more difficult words when explaining meaning and the incompleteness of explanations of meaning. These are real problems that have been noted in metalexicography with regard to many dictionaries (cf. Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 148-149). It is remarkable that some Zimbabwean users of dictionaries have experienced them. The only problem in this research is the fact that all the respondents fail to pin down certain problems to specific dictionaries that have disappointed them. This is unfortunate because it cannot be ascertained whether specific dictionaries present specific problems because of their deficiencies or because the users themselves have problems which inhibit success in their consultation processes. The problems are cited in a very general way. One respondent supplied a vague explanation by pointing out that the dictionaries that present problems are the "fongkong ones", meaning that they are not genuine. He/she went on to say "One used to give me a headache, have forgotten its name though but it was red in colour". Without a clear identification of a dictionary which suffers from this deficiency, it is possible that the user may be looking up certain words in a wrong dictionary because he/she expects them to be simply there since dictionaries are erroneously expected to

include all words. Nevertheless, the production of specific dictionaries, should Zimbabwe venture into English lexicography, should take these problems into account, in as much as dictionary education would be essential.

4.3 The Availability of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe

Another important issue that was investigated during the research is the availability of dictionaries which Zimbabweans may consult regarding English needs. The question being addressed here is whether dictionaries are immediately available for Zimbabweans to consult[7], borrow or buy. The dictionary situation in Zimbabwean libraries, bookshops and publishing houses, in addition to dictionary ownership, sheds light on the question. It further has implications for the prospects and challenges of English lexicography in Zimbabwe.

4.3.1 Dictionary Ownership

Although an impressive proportion of dictionary ownership was reported as part of the findings of the questionnaire survey in 4.2, it is revisited here for a few reasons. Firstly, the participants in the questionnaire survey constitute a specific class of English-speaking Zimbabweans, i.e. professionals who passed English as a subject at 'O' Level and are now learning and using it for professional purposes. As advanced learners, whether they use or do not use dictionaries may no longer be critical as beginners and intermediate learners when it comes to language competence. Secondly, the participants are now stationed in different parts of the world where they are either working or doing post-graduate studies. Their ownership of English

[7] The availability of dictionaries is an important factor in that it encourages dictionary use whenever a lexicographically-relevant problem arises. Although the present researcher bought his current collection of English dictionaries in order to study them, never in his life has he relied on dictionaries as it was the case during the writing of this dissertation. Furthermore, it was interesting to observe how family members also became regular dictionary users, not for academic purposes, but even when chatting with friends on social networks. It is from that end that a claim can be made that if dictionaries are readily made available in Zimbabwe, then dictionary culture stands a good chance to improve.

dictionaries does not necessarily reflect the availability of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe. They may have realised the need to acquire English dictionaries because of the demands of their work or study-related activities in foreign countries. This is highly likely as some of the participants indicated that they do not own dictionaries as families but as individuals. This might mean that while the individuals own dictionaries wherever they are, their families in Zimbabwe do not. For example, one participant responded:

> I don't remember any (dictionary) at home, I don't know whether it was resource constraints (buy food instead of dictionaries), or lack of knowledge about dictionaries themselves (PI).

The picture of dictionary ownership that emerged from the focus group discussions at schools is also quite different from the one that was obtained from the questionnaire survey. Not all teachers own dictionaries. None of the classes in which focus group discussions were conducted had a dictionary ownership proportion of at least 50% while many school children actually do not know dictionaries. The reason of resource constraints is true since dictionaries are expensive, but also true is that of inadequate knowledge about dictionaries. At one primary school, a teacher indicated that pupils do not use dictionaries because none exist which are appropriate for the primary level. It may be concluded that according to the focus group discussions dictionary ownership in Zimbabwe is not sufficient to provide immediate support in connection with problems experienced when learning or using English. In the education sector, where the dictionary may be of extreme help, it is not duly recognised as "the most successful and significant book about language" (Ilson 1985: 1). This is confirmed by the dictionary situation in school libraries.

4.3.2 Dictionaries at the UZ library

Most informants who do not own dictionaries claim to get them from libraries. Indeed, libraries are resource centres where people are expected to get all kinds of resources and information. The university library is the main resource centre and study venue for university students and researchers at the UZ. The investigation of the dictionary situation at the UZ library was described in 2.5. The investigation of the situation at schools included their libraries, where they exist, but that will be reported in 4.3.3. The UZ library alone may provide the best insight to the dictionary situation in the country as it is at the heart of the country's biggest and oldest academic institutions.

The UZ library catalogue, which is now available online, displays a fairly comprehensive list of dictionaries which may be consulted regarding various aspects of English[8]. The dictionary types include monolingual general-purpose dictionaries and specialised dictionaries for various subject fields. This means that students and academics at the university may have access to dictionaries if they need to address various needs emanating from the use of English, be they of communicative or cognitive nature. Perhaps a separate follow-up study may investigate if the university community actually makes use of the comprehensive inventory of dictionaries. All that could be established through observation and the interview with the librarian is that the reference shelves where dictionaries are packed are barely disturbed. The librarian stated that students in particular, have a tendency of not returning books to their locations after use, which usually results in desks being littered with books. However, the reference section was reportedly the most favourite for library packers. No dictionaries were found lying on the desks during the researcher's visit. Another disturbing observation, after a closer look at the shelves is that many dictionaries that

[8] A list of the available dictionaries at this library would have been useful in presenting the dictionary situation at the country's oldest institution of higher learning, but the mismatch between the dictionaries that were identified through the online search and those that were found on the shelves during the visit as well as the uncertainty that was shown by the librarians made such a list unattainable. Future research may consider drawing up an inventory of the available dictionaries, perhaps focusing on certain types to determine the extent to which the library is indeed a place where specific lexicographical needs may be addressed since few Zimbabweans, including university students, own dictionaries.

were supposed to be available on shelf according to the catalogue were not really present. On this, the librarian indicated that the dictionaries were among the books which were lost during the library's transition from the use of a manual catalogue to an online one a few years earlier. It was thus difficult to ascertain the physical availability of dictionaries at the university library. Nevertheless, the library's efforts to mobilise dictionaries could be ascertained through their availability as indicated by the online catalogue. On the mobilisation of dictionaries, the librarian indicated that in the past a fair budget was allocated for the acquisition of reference materials, including dictionaries, from international publishers. This was no longer the case due to the national economic crisis which had not spared universities. The university was then depending on donations for the latest books, with the *Longman Exams Dictionary*, the most recent dictionary at the time of the research, having the British Council stamp. Consequently, the library is now lacking as far as new dictionaries and new editions of old dictionaries are concerned.

4.3.3 Dictionaries at schools

The survey of the dictionary situation at schools went beyond investigating the ownership of dictionaries by teachers and learners to find out if schools made dictionaries readily available as tools that could be used during teaching and learning. The table below summarises the situation.

Primary School	Dictionary availability		High School
A	√	√	A
B	√	√	B
C	√	√	C
D	X	√	D
E	X	X	E

Table 2: Dictionary situation at the surveyed schools

In Table 2 above, a tick indicates that the school has at least one dictionary (seen by researcher/research assistant or reported by school authorities) while an X indicates that it does not. Since only three of the ten surveyed schools had no dictionary, Table 2 tends to portray a healthy situation as far as the dictionary availability is concerned. This only remains true until one gets into the finer details.

Primary School A and High School A are former Group A schools. These schools are well-resourced. Not much time was spent at these schools and the dictionaries that are available as part of the school property were not seen by the researcher or his assistant. The telling finding was that all learners were supposed to have their personal dictionaries. So whether the school made dictionaries readily available for learners by buying them and stocking them is irrelevant.

None of the township primary schools had a dictionary that was suitable for primary school pupils. Primary School B had single copies of the OALD and the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDCE) which were reportedly donated to the school. The dictionaries were safely locked up in a cupboard in the headmaster's office. Primary School C had a single copy of the *Macmillan School Dictionary* (MSD) which the researcher found on the headmaster's desk on the first day when he went to request permission to carry out the research. The school had recently bought the dictionary mainly for the use of the headmaster, despite the fact that it was the MSD, a school dictionary targeted at the needs of learners. Primary School D had recently ordered dictionaries during the final stage of the research. However, the types, titles or number of copies were not specified. The chances are high that advanced learners' dictionaries will be delivered as this would suit the bookseller who will be paid more by the school. However, this would be to the detriment of the pupils, who are beginners and intermediate learners, for whom the dictionaries have been ordered.

Besides High School A, the dictionary availability as part of school property at the other schools was worse than at the primary schools despite the fact that two primary schools had no dictionary and that those that had at least one had none that is suitable for the learners. High School B had a copy each of OALD and the MSD in the school library which also functions as the office of the Head of the English Department. It

was reported that students can use the dictionaries within the library. At High School C there were a number of English dictionaries and encyclopedias in the school library, with the fifth edition of the *Gage Canadian Dictionary* (Avis 1997) being the most recently published. The Head of the English Department at High School D reported that the school had dictionaries in the now dysfunctional school library which was locked. She could not name the dictionaries, but she admitted that they were very old. Although the situation appears worse at the high schools as far as the availability of dictionaries as school property is concerned, it is mitigated by the fact that unlike at primary schools, some teachers and learners have personal dictionaries.

While there was no doubt regarding the importance of dictionaries at Primary School A and High School A, dictionaries were not so much a priority at the other schools despite the fact that most teachers recognise the potential contributions of dictionaries in language acquisition. One high school teacher indicated that dictionaries were a lesser priority compared to textbooks whose shortage affects their day-to-day teaching. Some teachers discourage learners from dictionary use in a bid to make them independently creative in language learning and usage. This is unfortunate. Teachers and education authorities should be aware that we "cannot prevent our students from using them (dictionaries), but we can ensure that they are used wisely" (Brumfit 1985: v). Nevertheless, the unavailability of appropriate dictionaries at schools would still be counter-productive even if teachers encouraged dictionary use, given that personal dictionary ownership at schools is less than 50%.

4.3.4 Dictionaries in bookshops

Between 2009, when the preliminary survey of the dictionary situation in bookshops was done, and June 2011 when a follow-up was made during the final fieldwork exercise, drastic changes were observed. Initially, Matopo Book Centre had no single dictionary on the shelves. Mambo Bookshop had dictionaries, but these included *A Basic Shona Dictionary* and the specialised Shona and Ndebele dictionaries produced by ALRI. Similarly, Kingstones, located at the University of Zimbabwe campus, had locally produced African language dictionaries. The explanations regarding the situation were similar. The bookshops could not afford ordering dictionaries from

abroad because they are expensive, also given that there would be no buyers during the crisis which saw teachers going on strike and schools having extended holidays. That is why Mambo Bookshop could stock only those dictionaries that were published by the parent company, Mambo Press, while Kingstones also stocked locally produced African language dictionaries.

The situation of dictionary availability on the market was totally different during the final stages of the research. Not only were dictionaries available in the bookshops, they were also available on the streets in the same way as the basic commodities that were scarce in the previous years. This clearly reflects on the improved economic situation in the country. However, sales were still reported to be low, with it emerging during the model testing workshops that the dictionary situation at schools had hardly changed. This shows that the unavailability of dictionaries in the market which was observed in 2009 is one problem, but the abundance of dictionaries in the market is not the only solution. Dictionaries need to be seen as essential tools for learners and be part of all pedagogical activities for them to be purchased and used.

4.3.5 Local publishers

Although publishers were considered from the outset with regard to the role they have played in Zimbabwean lexicography and the role they may play in the future, including in the implementation of the proposed model, they were also involved during the final fieldwork in June. This was meant to discuss the proposed model and its feasibility from a publishing perspective, however, the point of departure naturally became focusing on what the publishers had thus far done to make English dictionaries in Zimbabwe. Longman Zimbabwe, which is affiliated to Pearson Education, and College Press, which is an affiliate of Macmillan, were included mainly because their parent companies are major role players in English lexicography.

Generally, the education sector provides the primary market for the publishing industry. Mainly local authors are published. Authors either approach publishers with book proposals or publishers commission authors to produce certain kinds of materials. In the former case, authors are often asked to do a market research to

confirm the commercial viability of their projects. Some publications are co-financed by authors and publishers. Publisher-commissioned publications result from satisfactory market research by publishers or when publishers get tenders to produce certain materials, for example, by education authorities.

Besides Longman and College Press, Mambo Press has also played a part as far as lexicography is concerned in Zimbabwe. A more active role has been played by the College Press and Mambo Press which have both published African language dictionaries. The former has also published the VSD, an English monolingual school dictionary (see 4.4.1 below). Longman is currently distributing Longman International and Pearson Education products, including dictionaries, while College Press also distributes dictionaries published by Macmillan. The researcher found that although these publishers continued stocking English dictionaries from abroad, it had been difficult to distribute them before 2010 when the economy improved because the bookshops were not prepared to order them. This situation has improved now. Both publishers had dictionaries in their warehouses and some of the dictionaries they are distributing were seen in the bookshops. Besides this, Longman has displayed more awareness of and interest in some lexicographically relevant needs of the learners by including mini-dictionaries as back matter of a school textbook series (see 7.4.1). This will be revisited in Chapter Seven where the model testing workshops with these two publishers are discussed.

4.4 Available dictionaries for consultation regarding English needs

This section attempts to identify the dictionaries that are available for Zimbabweans regarding English needs. The dictionaries are classified into monolingual dictionaries, locally produced bilingual dictionaries and locally produced LSP dictionaries. In the respective subsections between 4.4.1 and 4.4.3, the historical, social, philosophical and other motivations for lexicographical practice which produced the dictionary types in each category are considered. No in-depth dictionary criticism is offered, but the motivations behind the production of the dictionaries provide an impetus for this dissertation. A gap is noted which may be covered if Zimbabwe undertakes to play an

active role in English lexicography, rather than passively using the dictionaries that are on offer.

4.4.1 Monolingual English dictionaries

Writing on the monolingual general-purpose dictionary, Béjoint (2010: 48) argued:

> Among all these types of dictionaries, one occupies a particular position in all societies: the monolingual general-purpose dictionary (GPD). It is the dictionary that every household has, that most people think of first when the word *dictionary* is mentioned, it is the type that is most often bought, most often consulted, and the one that plays the most important role in the society that produces it ... the general-purpose dictionary is the prototypical dictionary for every one of us.

There is a lot of truth in the above quotation regarding the monolingual general-purpose dictionary, quite often called the general dictionary, but in African societies bilingual dictionaries have been the most known (though not very popular) until the recent production of monolingual African language dictionaries. Here one may consider Gallardo's (1980) remarks regarding bilingual dictionaries and the level of language standardisation cited in 1.2, whereby these dictionaries are the best one can get in non-standardised language communities. Since these dictionaries are normally not produced by members of the speech communities, or even for their use, it is the eventual production of monolingual general dictionaries that marks a turning point in the lexicographical history of those communities. Thus, the power and prototypical nature of the monolingual general dictionary may never be disputed. In the case of English lexicography, the dominant role of monolingual dictionaries has even transcended the boundaries of societies that produce them. Most dictionaries that Zimbabweans use or know are general dictionaries and, to a limited extent, learners' dictionaries of English. LSP dictionaries were scarcely identified by Zimbabweans who constituted the user research on which this chapter is based. However, the UZ library has many of such dictionaries dealing with different subject fields. Accordingly, the discussion in this section largely focuses on general and learners' dictionaries.

Oxford was by far the most frequent publisher name that emerged from the research when the participants tried to name either dictionary types or specific dictionaries. The others are *Longman*, *Cambridge*, *Collins*, *Macmillan* and, in just one instance, *Random House*. These names say it all about the majority of English dictionaries that have been used in Zimbabwe. They are imports mainly from Britain, and to a lesser extent, America. This is not surprising since the mentioned publishers are the world's powerhouses of lexicography, English lexicography in particular. The only difference is that while these lexicographical powerhouses have branches in most countries where English is used as an official language, with English dictionaries playing an important role as supporting linguistic instruments, only Longman has had a branch in Zimbabwe while College Press is at least affiliated to MacMillan. Besides marketing the dictionaries produced by the parent companies, Longman Zimbabwe and College Press have not played a major role in English lexicography. At least the latter has its name on the VSD, a primary school English dictionary, but it will be shown in Chapter Six and Seven that very little has been done in this dictionary to make it a plausible effort as a Zimbabwean dictionary. Therefore, despite having a Zimbabwean published English dictionary, the country remains a passive consumer of lexicographical products produced abroad.

In order to appreciate the negative impacts that Zimbabwe's passive consumer role of English dictionaries has had on the availability of appropriate and user-friendly dictionaries to support the learning and use of the country's sole official language, the foundations of English lexicography should be revisited, firstly in Britain, and, secondly, in America and other English-speaking countries. The subsection cannot be a treatise in this respect but rather a cursory recollection which, however, should be sufficient to demonstrate the need for a more active role of Zimbabwe in English lexicography. Chapter Seven is particularly intended to be a clear road-map of defining the nature of such a role. As it will be seen, the user perspective is integral in this role.

The history of English lexicography is well-documented by scholars such as Osselton (1983), Landau (2001) and Béjoint (1994; 2000; 2010). The first monolingual English dictionary was published in 1604 (Béjoint 2010: 56, Landau 2001: 43, Osselton 1983: 14). However, this was not necessarily the beginning of English lexicography. There

had been bilingual glossaries and wordlists before it which were compiled for practical reasons, i.e. to explain difficult words, especially technical terms of Latin origin (Osselton 1983: 14-16). Yet those were not enough especially to please British intellectuals who were concerned about the continued lack of an authority for their language at a time when countries such as Spain, Italy and France were pro-active (Béjoint 2010: 56, 79). Although Samuel Johnson was against the idea of creating a language authority such as the French Academy which his contemporaries yearned for (Béjoint 2010: 80), his shared philosophy and ideology about language and the dictionary was apparent when he was assigned the mammoth task of compiling what was to become the landmark of English lexicography. As Johnson (1747: 4,11) declared in his *Dictionary Plan*:

> The chief intent of ... [the *Dictionary*] is to preserve the purity of and ascertain the meaning of our English idiom. ... one great end of this undertaking is to fix the English language.

He set out "to produce an authoritative dictionary of the English language" (Béjoint 2010: 81). Subsequent British lexicographers such as Richard Chenevix Trench were against Johnson's prescriptive approach such that future dictionaries would adopt a scholarly approach based on historical principles (Béjoint 2010: 96-67). Nevertheless, Johnson's *Dictionary* made an indelible mark, paving the way for the OED (Landau 2001: 66), which, although adopting a different approach, remains a typically British English dictionary (cf. Werner 1997). Benson (2001) and Mugglestone (2005) show how some of Johnson's uncompromisingly strong prescriptive tendencies manifested themselves in the compilation of the OED. Interestingly, the worldwide dictionary iconicity which it enjoys is apparent among Zimbabweans.

It is thus Johnson's philosophy which motivated the emergence of English lexicography in other English-speaking countries. Besides an equally strong zeal for having their own English dictionaries as symbols of autonomy from Britain, the need to cater for distinct varieties of English (Delbridge and Butler 1999, Gouws 1999), the so-called *World Englishes*, vis-à-vis the supremacist attitudes of British lexicography dating back to Johnson and living on in the OED and other British dictionaries, gave birth to English lexicography in other countries such as America, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, etc. This was first well-argued by Noah Webster, in his argument

for *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, who emphasised "the need for recognizing a distinctively American English" and included "new terms and senses that had originated or been changed by usage in America" (Landau 2001: 71). According to Landau (2001: 71), the undertaking was fully justified since "American culture, customs, and political institutions differed from the British, and different words were used to describe them in each country". This has been the guiding principle in the production of English dictionaries in countries such as Australia and South Africa (Delbridge and Butler 1999, Gouws 1999).

Besides the limitations of Johnson's and other British dictionaries which saw English lexicography grow cumulatively in other English-speaking countries, the worldwide teaching of English had its lexicographical impact in the form of learners' dictionaries. These dictionaries were meant to facilitate the acquisition and use of English as a foreign language and now as an official but second or third language in countries such as Zimbabwe. These dictionaries have the same supremacist tendencies, for instance, Tomaszczyk (1983) observes that the definitions in the so-called 'Big Five' are too British. In the case of Zimbabwe, and particularly relevant for this study, the problem is that advanced learners' dictionaries are the most dominant. The advanced learners would have passed their biggest test as far as English is concerned, for example 'O' Level English in Zimbabwe (see 4.1 above). Yet serious needs are experienced way before that, in the early levels of education where many remain trapped in 'ignorance' and on margins of society due to failure to master the language. Thus, English dictionaries are needed more in Zimbabwe to facilitate the acquisition of the language at early levels of education.

4.4.2 Bilingual dictionaries pairing English with indigenous languages

Besides the monolingual English general, learners' and LSP dictionaries, Zimbabwe's lexicographical landscape is characterised by a handful of bilingual dictionaries pairing English with the two national languages, Shona and Ndebele (see 1.2). Those that are still in circulation include *A Shona Dictionary* (Biehler 1950), *Standard Shona Dictionary* (M. Hannan 1959), *A Basic Shona Dictionary* (Dale 1976), *A Shona-English Phrasebook* (Mawadza 2000) and *A Practical Ndebele Dictionary* (Pelling 1976), the only one pairing English with Ndebele. With the exception of

Mawadza (2000), these bilingual dictionaries were compiled in Zimbabwe. Rightfully, the first four are classified as Shona dictionaries, while Pelling (1976) is widely regarded as a Ndebele dictionary. Accordingly, the little metalexicographical attention they have received has been from the perspective of African languages, quite often negative criticism (see Chabata 2007; 2008, Hadebe 2006, Moyo 2007, Viriri 2004). Chabata (2007: 280) observes that the dictionaries, with the exception of Mawadza (2000), were meant for the use of missionaries or colonial administrators trying to learn the indigenous languages, but not Zimbabweans learning either their native languages or English. Similar observations have been made regarding bilingual dictionaries produced in other African countries during the colonial period (Awak 1990: 10, Busane 1990: 20). Accordingly, Nkomo (2008: 10) characterises the available bilingual dictionaries in Zimbabwe, as externally-motivated lexicographical products, especially when compared to the ALLEX dictionaries compiled between 1992 and 2006. Again, the circumstances regarding their production are similar to the typical situation described by Gallardo (1980: 61) with regard to bilingual dictionaries.

The foregoing would suggest that the dictionaries under discussion have been of no absolute value to indigenous Zimbabweans. This would be an overstatement. One aspect of their use that is particularly relevant to this study is in connection with English by native speakers of indigenous languages. George Fortune foresaw the use of the *Standard Shona Dictionary* in connection with problems regarding English when, in the preface of the second edition, he recommended that the dictionary's "enlarged English-Shona Index ... must serve until a proper English-Shona dictionary is compiled" (Hannan 1978: vi). Hannan (1978: 758) was equally honest to advise that the index would be limited as far as English is concerned when he wrote:

> It must be emphasised that this is not an English-Shona dictionary. The Shona words listed in an index entry are not presented as the only Shona words that have this particular English meaning; they are presented as Shona words in whose definitions, in the Shona-English dictionary, this particular English word occurs which leads to the index entry.

The present research confirmed that indeed, these bilingual dictionaries are used in connection with English needs, an observation that was also made earlier by Hadebe

(2005: 266). The use of the dictionaries for translation from English to the African languages is one of the primary functions for which they were compiled. This assumes a higher level of competence in English from the users. The use of the dictionaries by the users who want to acquire English vocabulary and meaning via indigenous languages is a desperate function which confronts the user with problems of sense discrimination in these dictionaries. Loyal to their primary target users, the dictionaries provide introductory and grammatical information in the front matter texts using English. The limited grammatical data in the form of word-class indication is given using English codes in both sections of biscopal *Standard Shona Dictionary* and *A Practical Ndebele Dictionary*. This clearly requires a high level of English competence and an experience in using English dictionaries which could not be guaranteed among many Zimbabweans by the time the dictionaries were produced. At present, their use, especially by users who want to learn English vocabulary and meaning, is a clear indicator of a gap in the country's lexicographical inventory. While bilingual dictionaries may facilitate additional language acquisition, in the case of Zimbabwe, new dictionaries are needed which also prioritise the speakers of indigenous languages as deserving learners of English. Such dictionaries need to take into account recent metalexicographical developments in bilingual and learners' lexicography.

4.4.3 Locally produced specialised dictionaries

In addition to monolingual English dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries pairing English and Ndebele, the recently produced LSP dictionaries for the fields of music in both Shona and Ndebele, biomedicine, linguistics and literature in Shona have a dimension which allows them to play a small but significant part in addressing some problems related to English in Zimbabwe. While these are strictly Shona and Ndebele dictionaries whose genuine purpose concurs with 'the expansion of the usage of African languages in all specialised spheres of life' articulated in the mission statement of ALRI, under whose auspices the dictionaries were compiled, they provide English equivalents and alphabetical registers lemmatising in English. These features permit them to serve the acquisition of English LSP as a marginal function in the same way as the bilingual dictionaries are used for learning English vocabulary (See 4.4.2 above). Unlike the bilingual dictionaries described in the previous

subsection, the LSP dictionaries present more data categories in Shona or Ndebele than English. The assumption is that the user may know the English term, given that English is the main language of instruction used in learning various subjects, but scarcely understand its meaning. To the native speaker of an African language, a Shona or Ndebele paraphrase of meaning will then provide the meaning which may increase the user's understanding of the term and knowledge of the concept it represents. However, this is all that the user gets as far as English is concerned. Etymological data in these dictionaries is provided in the African languages and no data that may facilitate the usage of English terms is provided. This should not be seen as a limitation of these dictionaries but a limited advantage that complements the use of English LSP dictionaries which are available in abundance, given that these are Shona and Ndebele dictionaries. Moreover, their value is in their African dimension of the subject fields in which they are compiled, given that most of the available LSP dictionaries for music, medicine, linguistics and literature are externally produced lexicographical products.

4.5 Prospects and challenges for English lexicography in Zimbabwe

The prospects of practical English lexicography in Zimbabwe may be predicated on the user research that was conducted and the experience of countries other than Britain in producing their own English dictionaries. Firstly, the user research indicates that despite a lack of a fully-fledged dictionary culture across the entire Zimbabwean educational and professional spectra, there is considerable awareness of the value of dictionaries and the need for more dictionaries to cover certain needs regarding English. Secondly, it emerged that certain needs are not covered in the existing English dictionaries currently produced by various English-speaking countries. Thirdly, it also emerged that even the existing English dictionaries are not sufficiently available to be made integral instruments in the educational and professional activities of Zimbabweans and that this is partly due to the fact that the dictionaries have to be imported. Finally, the idea of countries such as America, Australia and South Africa, among others, engaging in English lexicography and producing their own English dictionaries are success stories which were both remote and unthinkable when

Johnson's *Dictionary* was published in 1755. All this indicates that it is possible to identify certain dictionary types which will not only empower Zimbabweans should Zimbabwe venture into English lexicography in the future, but also contribute to the entirety of English lexicography. Needless to say, these prospects would be confronted with serious challenges ranging from financial, political and social support within and outside Zimbabwe.

The seemingly most obvious prospect for English lexicography in Zimbabwe is a dictionary that would record Zimbabwean English (ZE), the momentum of whose recognition seems to be making up for its prolonged neglect (Fitzmaurice 2010, Kadenge 2009, Mlambo 2009). A decade and a half ago, Makoni (1996) dismissed the existence of ZE in an argument for an 'interlanguage'. However, Fitzmaurice's (2010) argument for the existence of Rhodesian English (RE) and ZE concurs with Kadenge (2009) and Mlambo (2009) that ZE has its own distinct idiosyncratic features in pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax, resulting from contact with indigenous languages. The distinct nature of English varieties outside Britain has become an acceptable phenomenon and this is partly thanks to lexicography through which English dictionaries based on historical principles have been produced. Resources permitting, a dictionary of ZE may be considered and such a dictionary would be different from the available English dictionaries, including those produced in South Africa, as long as the argument about the idiosyncratic features of ZE is valid. Such a dictionary would account for the problem of over-specification and generalisation in English dictionaries which was identified as detrimental to language usage by some survey participants. However, the dictionary would need a sound linguistic research as its basis to establish that ZE is indeed a reality. Besides words such as *small-house* (mistress) or *bacossi* (cheap)[9] which are now widely accepted as part of English in

[9] This word started as an acronym for Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention (BACOSSI), a programme that was introduced by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) in 2007 to address the acute shortage of basic commodities in the country. Through this programme, the RBZ provided financial support to selected manufacturing companies to produce basic commodities and sell them to the consumers at lower prices compared to those that were prevailing in the black market where most goods were always available. Now *bacossi* is widely used in advertising goods on the basis of them being cheap.

Zimbabwe, is there enough evidence of the emergence of ZE? This issue is beyond the scope of this study.

The other prospects are clearly based on the educational needs of Zimbabweans, which should be at the core of the Zimbabwean user perspective, transcending the political and ideological motivations which saw the development of historical or regional English dictionaries. Besides a dictionary of ZE, Zimbabwe needs English dictionaries that would support the acquisition and use of the language as a school subject and medium of instruction. The acquisition of English from the very early years of education up to 'O' Level may not be fully supported by the existing English dictionaries. For example, that the OALD and the LDCE were the only available dictionaries at a primary school library makes the dictionaries a case of 'nice-to-haves' rather than utility objects. The point here is that there are no school dictionaries or learners' dictionaries to support Zimbabwean students learning and using English before they may be rightly regarded as advanced learners. One teacher used the inappropriateness of the existing dictionaries to support the practice of discouraging dictionary use at schools. Importing school dictionaries will not address all the problems, given that most school dictionaries are based on specific national curricula (see Chapter Five and Chapter Six). At best, these dictionaries, which may include general and LSP dictionaries, need to be compiled in Zimbabwe in order to fully take into account the learner characteristics regarding their language competences and culture as well as their situations. Metalexicographical criteria need to be developed to produce such dictionaries and the main objective of this research is to contribute in this regard.

As indicated earlier, these prospects face serious challenges of financial, political, social and even lexicographical nature. Venturing into English lexicography would certainly be a very expensive enterprise which is unlikely to get financial support from the government in the near future due to the country's economic situation. It took external financial support for Zimbabwe to produce monolingual dictionaries in African languages. Local publishers are also unlikely to take such a financial risk since dictionaries are not duly recognised in the education sector. For example, following the award of a government tender to produce school textbooks to one of the publishing companies covered in this research (NewZimbabwe.com, 15/04/2010), this

researcher enquired from the company's publishing manager if dictionaries were included. She aptly stated that they were not part of the consignment. For political reasons, external donors are also unlikely to pour money into such a huge project in a country that finds itself in a humanitarian crisis. The government, local population and international community are less likely to be appreciative of such an undertaking. The least they may do as far as English lexicography is concerned is donating existing dictionaries to schools and libraries. The argument, its limitations aside, would be why produce English dictionaries in Zimbabwe when they could be imported. Thus, the prospects would depend on the improvement of a dictionary culture which, in this case, does not simply entail the awareness of the importance of dictionaries by all concerned, but also the hope that the dictionaries produced in Zimbabwe would be more user-friendly.

4.6 Prioritisation, planning and production of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe

In the light of the previous section, English lexicography in Zimbabwe may be seen as a long-term but worthwhile prospect (see Chapter Seven). Beyond justifying the need, prioritisation and long-term planning would be paramount, not only in the establishment of English lexicography but also in ensuring that the first dictionary or series of dictionaries that would be produced would make a social, economic, political and lexicographical impact to allay the fears that were raised in 4.5. For example, given an opportunity, would we want to convince the world that ZE is a reality by compiling a dictionary of ZE or should we rather produce pedagogical dictionaries which would improve the acquisition and use of English at school and solve learning problems resulting from the role of English in education and society? What logistics should be put in place to produce the prioritised dictionaries? Who can compile and publish those English dictionaries? What steps need to be taken to ensure that such dictionaries become part of the society?

Only the first question will be addressed here. The rest will be addressed in a more critical and comprehensive way in the remaining chapters, especially Chapter Seven. As a matter of priority, Zimbabwe would rather produce dictionaries to facilitate the acquisition and use of English at school levels from the first grade when children are

exposed to formal learning of English up to 'O' Level when their competence is tested to deem them capable to play important roles in society by virtue of having passed English with grade C or better. The production of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe should primarily be a lexicographical intervention in language acquisition and use, of which the pre-'O' Level stages are critical. This means that the prospective dictionaries should address the problems that are prevalent in the formal learning of English as a school subject and also its use as a medium of instruction in the learning of other subjects.

4.7 Conclusion

The acquisition of English in Zimbabwe is too important to be left aside, given the role played by the language in various spheres of life. Dictionaries have the potential to solve some of the problems faced by Zimbabweans in the acquisition and use of English. This chapter has provided a Zimbabwean user perspective on English lexicography, indicating that despite the people's awareness of the potential and actual contributions of English dictionaries, dictionaries are presently not optimally utilised, not sufficiently available and not well-suited for the most challenged Zimbabweans as far as language acquisition and use is concerned. The Zimbabwean English learners and situations in which they use the language are different. Therefore, dictionaries that consider this reality are needed. The chapter has argued that if dictionaries are to play an important role in the acquisition and use of the language, then Zimbabwe needs to play an active role in English lexicography. The key areas of need have been identified as the education sector since English is learnt formally at schools. Such a priority-based approach to the seemingly impossible enterprise of English lexicography in Zimbabwe, supported by metalexicographically founded models, would be the best way of ensuring that appropriate and user-friendly dictionaries are made available to assist Zimbabweans with the most critical problems in language acquisition and use.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONSIDERATIONS FOR ENGLISH BEGINNERS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter considers lexicographical support for Zimbabwean English beginners. As potential users, the Zimbabwean English beginners have been characterised in 4.1.1. Section 5.1 analyses the situations in which these potential dictionary users may benefit from dictionary consultation. This means that a highlight of Zimbabwean English beginners' lexicographically-relevant problems will be made. This leads to the identification of their lexicographically-relevant needs with regard to English in Section 5.2. Section 5.3 revisits the history of lexicography and explores both the theory and the practice of lexicography to interrogate what lexicography has had to offer to users similar to Zimbabwean English beginners in similar situations. A survey of some existing dictionaries is done in Section 5.4 to determine the appropriateness of the available solutions. The main features of the relevant dictionary types with regard to the kind of users are presented in Section 5.5. In Section 5.6, bi- and multilingual solutions are considered, given that the dissertation deals with lexicographical support for the acquisition and use of English as an additional language. Lessons drawn from the preceding sections are presented in 5.7, before the conclusion of the chapter in Section 5.8.

5.1 Situations of English beginners

The acquisition and use of English by beginners in Zimbabwe may be realised in both cognitive and communicative situations (see 3.4.2). The following two cognitive situations are identified:

- The learning of English as a subject
- The learning of the vocabulary used in the other school subjects

The first situation arises from the language-in-education policy which clearly stipulates that English should be taught at this stage as a subject. This provision is generally followed by all primary schools. Therefore, the learning of English as a

subject is a *systematic cognitive situation* (Tarp 2008: 46). However, this situation is a bit more complex because it is constituted by *communicative situations* in which lies the importance of learning the English subject as a whole. What is meant by this is that English as a school subject is not an end in itself. The subject is learnt in order to equip the learners with skills rather than knowledge about the language and these skills are relevant in many other areas of knowledge (cf. Tarp 2008: 131-136).

The second cognitive situation would not be listed here if the language-in-education policy and practices regarding the mother-tongue medium in the learning of subjects other than English and the African languages were consistent. It was noted earlier that English is actually used in teaching all the subjects besides the African languages. The study of those subjects constitutes systematic cognitive situations. Of course, of importance in those situations is the subject knowledge, but that would be of primary interest to LSP lexicography. However, those situations require learners to acquire and master the special languages (LSPs) of the respective subjects in English. Therefore, within a systematic cognitive situation of learning mathematics, for instance, a *sporadic cognitive situation* (Tarp 2008: 46) may occur in which a learner may have to learn a mathematical term or its meaning. This will not be an end in itself. The acquisition of the relevant special language will be a prerequisite for the acquisition of knowledge as well as communication. This communication is also necessary for knowledge acquisition and dissemination. Therefore, communicative situations will be part of the systematic cognitive situations of the learning of school subjects which are taught in English, as in the case of learning English as a subject. These communicative situations will be discussed in more detail shortly, but it is noteworthy that the cited cognitive situations reflect the validity of Tarp's (2008: 45) observation that:

> In one sense cognitive situations are the easiest to deal with – and yet they are the hardest to define because they sometimes disappear like smoke between your fingers (Tarp 2008: 45).

This is because it is difficult to discuss the cognitive situations without discussing some communicative situations which may be part of the former to an extent that it may be difficult to draw the boundary.

Because English is taught as a subject to the potential users, and because of the discrepancy between the language-in-education policy regarding the use of English as the language of teaching and learning at this phase, and also because of the urgency with which learners are prepared for the dominant role of English as the language of teaching and learning in the later grades (cf. Mlambo 2002, Nziramasanga 1999, NLPAP 1998), learners between Grade 1 and 3 find themselves in the following two main types of communicative situations:

- Text reception in English
- Text production in English

Text reception situations occur in both oral and written forms. Firstly, basic communication ranging from greetings to the assignment of tasks by the teacher is normally expressed in English in most primary schools. This means that the learners should be able to understand whatever their teachers say to them to facilitate learning and other classroom or school activities. The learners may also need to understand what they say to each other either as part of formal learning or other social interactions through the English medium. Secondly, the written form of text reception will involve reading and comprehending a variety of children's books and comments from teachers on their work as part of learning English as a subject or the other subjects which are taught in English. This may happen either at school or at home as part of homework or leisure. All this constitute various 'sub-situations' (Tarp 2008: 147) in which English text reception problems may occur.

Similarly, text production in English is required as part of learning English as a subject and other content subjects for Zimbabwean English beginners in both oral and written form. Firstly, the learners should respond to verbal formal learning and social communication between the teacher and themselves or among themselves. They should be able, for instance, to answer questions as part of learning, greet teachers or each other, to make requests and apologies, in English. As far as written text production is concerned, the learners are supposed to do class exercises, homework and tests in English as part of learning the language as a subject and other subjects. All these activities constitute sub-situations of English text production in which beginners may experience lexicographically-relevant needs.

Now that both the cognitive and communicative situations of Zimbabwean English beginners have been discussed, it is important to recall that "in cognitive situations it is not necessarily problems that lead to dictionary consultation", but rather "the wish to acquire knowledge" (Tarp 2008: 46). In the case of Zimbabwean English beginners, perhaps only the knowledge of English as a subject will be more relevant compared to the knowledge of other subjects which are taught in English. As far as lexicography is concerned, the knowledge of the other subjects will be set aside as the subject of LSP lexicography. Still, the knowledge of English as a subject is only important in as far as it can be turned into skills which can be used for communication and cognitive purposes (cf. Tarp 2008 131-136). This means that the aspects of English knowledge which is relevant for this level of users, together with the problems that they may have in communication situations, should form the basis of the lexicographically-relevant user needs of Zimbabwean English beginners.

5.2 Identifying the lexicographical needs

From the user characterisation in 4.1.1 and the discussion of user situations in 5.1 above, the lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean English beginners may now be identified. This includes both the primary needs and secondary needs (Tarp 2008: 56). As indicated in 3.4.3, the former refer to those needs which lead to a dictionary usage situation while the latter refer to the needs which arise during dictionary consultation. This means that primary needs arise due to communication problems or desire to gain knowledge while secondary needs manifest themselves in the form of skills required for a successful dictionary consultation procedure. Both these types of needs are particularly relevant in the case of Zimbabwean English beginners.

Given their background as non-native speakers, their age and level of education, Zimbabwean English beginners need very basic information about English to develop skills that will enable them to address their needs and problems in situations discussed in 5.1. Vocabulary acquisition is the first component. The vocabulary they need should adequately match the knowledge that they already have and that which they are expected to acquire at that level. This include nominal and descriptive words pertaining to objects and activities within their immediate environment at home,

school and other recreational places that are suitable for them. In addition to this, the basic vocabulary of their school subjects will be needed. The assimilation of such basic vocabulary and its meaning will go together with the cognitive development of the learners.

However, for a solid foundation for cognitive development to be established, the learners need to assimilate the grammar of the language. This will facilitate text reception and text production in English, which is basically the main language of learning at this level and beyond. But at this level, the grammar has to be basic to facilitate mainly the production of simple sentences. Basic information about inflection; singular nouns to plural, present tense to other verb tenses, adjectives to comparatives or superlatives, etc, will be needed since these processes are performed differently in the native languages of the learners.

Basically, those are the main primary needs of Zimbabwean English beginners. If the learners could be provided with a dictionary covering such needs, the acquisition and use of English at this level is likely to be enhanced. However, such a dictionary will need to be presented in such a way that it takes account of the potential users' secondary needs. Although it was revealed that dictionary culture in Zimbabwe is generally not as bad as have been believed previously, this is mainly the case with adult users, with many primary school pupils having never seen or used a dictionary. Therefore, as argued by various scholars such as Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 165) as well as Yong and Peng (2007: 83), not only the availability of information needs will provide an adequate lexicographical support for Zimbabwean English beginners. The data also need to be presented in a very user-friendly way so that users may retrieve the sought information while comfortably developing further dictionary skills.

5.3 Considering dictionary typology

From the perspective of dictionary typology (cf. Hartmann 2001, Hartmann and James 1998, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005), three dictionary types may address to varying degrees the lexicographical needs of English beginners in Zimbabwe. These are picture dictionaries, children's dictionaries and school dictionaries. However, it needs

to be noted that these dictionary types exist within highly fluid typological boundaries. Consider the following definitions from Hartmann and James (1998):

> **Picture dictionary**
>
> A type of reference work in which the information treated is exclusively depicted by illustrations, in contrast to an illustrated dictionary where pictorial material is only supplementary …
>
> **Children's dictionary**
>
> A dictionary aimed at children. While the transition between the dictionary for younger children and the school dictionary is fluid, the former is less bound by the conventions of the traditional, fully-fledged general dictionary than the latter. It is based on a limited basic vocabulary and use illustrations and 'stories' – often humorous – rather than formal definitions, to explain the meanings of the (predominantly concrete) words.
>
> **School dictionary**
>
> A dictionary written for school-children, common features of which are a controlled defining vocabulary, a clear design and the incorporation of illustrations. The boundaries between the school dictionary on the one hand, and children's dictionaries, … on the other, are not clearly demarcated.

Although Hartmann and James (1998) observe the inaptness of the criteria used to distinguish the three dictionary types and try to distinguish them, the criteria that these writers are also not apt. It is still possible to further question the above definitions and argue that the efforts of addressing user needs should transcend the typological boundaries. For example, the following points need to be noted:

- The definition of a picture dictionary as a "type of reference work" instead of a dictionary as is the case with the other dictionary types indicates uncertainty regarding its status as a product of lexicographical practice. This may be noted to be resulting from the influence of traditional scholarship on lexicography in which a dictionary has been regarded as a book which explains language, i.e. words using other words.

- The emphasis that a picture dictionary exclusively depicts the treated information by means of pictures compared to other types, including children's and school dictionaries, in which pictures are supplementary, is silent about the fact that it is essentially a children's dictionary.

- The same can be said of the distinction between children's dictionaries and school dictionaries if the target users are used as the main criterion for distinguishing them, although the latter clearly brings out the dimension of the situations of users. However, the user situations which are not explicitly identified in the case of school dictionaries are neither ruled out in children's dictionaries which may also be used at schools for similar functions.

In the light of the above, any lexicographical practice targeted at Zimbabwean English beginners should not be constrained by the clearly inapt typological distinctions of the prospective dictionaries. What is important in the identification of these types of dictionaries as potential instruments of addressing the problems of the potential users with which this chapter is concerned is that the dictionaries should be conceived with these users in mind, primarily their age and level of education which have implications for their language competences and dictionary using skills, as well as their situations of use. Therefore, this study will not suggest picture dictionaries, children's dictionaries or school dictionaries in the traditional senses of these dictionary types as possible lexicographical intervention tools in the early acquisition of English in Zimbabwe. However, 'children's dictionary' or 'children's dictionaries' will be used to underline that the potential users are young children. The extent of the use of pictures in the dictionaries, and whether the dictionaries are used at school or at home will be of little relevance, as long as the dictionaries are able to provide the required assistance in the relevant situations. The initial awareness that young children also require lexicographical assistance and the subsequent developments in this area may provide some guidelines on the necessary steps that need to be taken to ensure that dictionaries play a role in the acquisition and use of English by beginners in Zimbabwe.

5.4. A brief history

The pioneer lexicographer as far as children's dictionaries are concerned was Edward Lee Thorndike in the 1930s (Béjoint, 2010: 140, Landau 2001: 25, Miller et al 1983: 22). As a psychologist specialising in language acquisition (Landau 2010: 263), Thorndike did not only introduce the use of frequency lists to select words that were relevant for children. He also motivated that paraphrases of meaning should be adapted to the users' competence levels. Based on these principles, he edited his "series of Thorndike-Century dictionaries" (Landau 2001: 25), addressing separately the needs of "beginning, junior and senior school children" (*Britannica Online*). This marked a major departure from the practices that prevailed during and before the early twentieth century when "any small sized dictionary was considered suitable for school children" without any concession to simplicity in lexicographical treatment (Landau 2001: 25). The new trend continued after Thorndike's death. Clarence Barnhart, who had worked with Thorndike, edited the Thorndike-Barnhart series and even listed Thorndike as co-author thirty years later.

Today there is a wide range of children's dictionaries designed for use at home or at school. Some are monolingual, but others are bilingual or multilingual (see 5.6 below). As Landau (2001: 25) rightfully observes, these dictionaries are now part of the highly competitive lexicographical market. Table 3 below lists some monolingual English dictionaries which, or whose models, may be considered for English beginners in Zimbabwe.

Publisher	Title	Age category
Oxford	*Oxford Very First Dictionary*	4+
Oxford	*Oxford First Dictionary*	6+
Oxford	*Oxford Children's Colour Dictionary*	8+
Oxford	*Oxford Children's Dictionary*	9+
Oxford	*Oxford Jnr illustrated Dictionary*	7+
Oxford	*Oxford Jnr Dictionary*	8+
Oxford	*Oxford Primary Dictionary*	9+
Pearson/Longman	*Longman Children's Picture Dictionary*	6-9
Pearson/Longman	*Longman Picture Dictionary*	-
Macmillan	*Macmillan Picture Dictionary*	6-12
Macmillan	*Macmillan First Dictionary*	Pre- and primary school
Macmillan	*Macmillan Children's Dictionary*	-
Macmillan	*Macmillan Dictionary for Children*	8-12
Houghton Mifflin Harcourt	*New American Heritage First Dictionary*	4-8
Teaching resources	*Scholastic First Dictionary*	6-9
DK Children	*My First Dictionary*	4-8
Collins Educational	*Collins First School Dictionary*	5+
Collins Educational	*Collins Junior Illustrated Dictionary*	6+
Collins Educational	*Collins Junior Dictionary*	7+
Collins Educational	*Collins Primary Dictionary*	8+
Cambridge	*Cambridge Picture Dictionary*	7+

Table 3: English dictionaries for young learners

It is abundantly clear from the above table that practical lexicography has given considerable attention to young children as potential and real users of dictionaries. Unfortunately, these dictionaries and the category of their users have received very

little attention from metalexicography. Most of what has been said about these dictionaries comes from the publishers and book sellers. It is, therefore, not surprising that in a country like Zimbabwe, dictionaries for young children are still not part of the society. However, the abundance of such dictionaries on the market, as demonstrated in Table 3, is a compelling indicator that even at the early language acquisition level, dictionaries have an extremely important role to play. Table 3 contains dictionaries that are targeted at children whose ages and level of education correspond to those of English beginners in Zimbabwe. For instance, the *Oxford Very First Dictionary* (OVFD) is targeted at children aged 4 years and above. The *Oxford Primary Dictionary* (OFD) is targeted at those who are 9 years and above. This means that the Zimbabwean English beginners profiled in 4.1.1 may initially use the OVFD or the *Collins First School Dictionary* and later on use dictionaries such as the *Oxford Primary Dictionary* (OPD) or the *Macmillan Dictionary for Children* which also cover the needs of other potential users who are not part of the user profile outlined in 4.1.1, as long as they have developed the relevant dictionary skills. Therefore, Table 3 lists dictionaries which may also be used by the potential Zimbabwean users profiled in 4.1.1 on the basis of the minimum ages of the targeted users although they are meant for older users. This is because they share a lot of features which correspond to the user needs, although the prevalence of the features varies considerably with the ages and educational levels of the users.

5.5 Main features of children's dictionaries

A booklet entitled *Dictionaries for children and young adults*, which is a collection of reviews for selected dictionaries by the *Reference Books Bulletin* Editorial Board of the American Library Association, i.e. Miller et al (1983), is thus far the most comprehensive publication on children's dictionaries, at least in English. In this booklet, nine children's dictionaries are subjected to rigorous dictionary criticism, focusing on "the compiler's authority and expertise; vocabulary; the format of entries; special features; and physical appearance" (Miller et al 1983: 5-6). This is performed within the broad framework of encouraging a reading culture among the general public, but particularly providing "practical assistance to parents, teachers, and

librarians in the selection of dictionaries for children and young adults" (Miller et al 1983: 6). This is one major role of dictionary criticism, the other being assisting "lexicographers in optimizing the functionality of their dictionaries" (Swanepoel 2008: 209). The latter objective is extremely critical in this chapter and the entire dissertation, specifically to motivate English lexicographical practice targeted at Zimbabwean users and to inform the subsequent practice.

The reviews in Miller et al (1983) do not only enlighten readers regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the selected dictionaries. They also enable the reader to discern the general features of those dictionaries. Between pages 7 and 10, a general exposition of children's dictionaries is provided, followed by a half-page discussion of dictionaries for beginners, ranging between 5 and 8 years. This material provides a general overview of children's dictionaries, the features of which are then illustrated in the separate reviews.

Apart from Miller et al (1983), reference is also made to Landau (2001) whose section entitled "Age of users" partly discusses children's dictionaries. The features of children's dictionaries were also covered in a workshop on school dictionaries for first language speakers conducted by Prof. Sven Tarp on 11 January 2010 at Stellenbosch University. Although the present work benefited from the above-cited initiatives, a sufficiently wide collection of relevant dictionaries published by Oxford, Longman, Macmillan and Cannon Collins was closely examined either in hard copy or electronic formats.

The reviews in Miller et al (1983) pertain to the following three groups of dictionaries:

(1) dictionaries for use until or including grade three;

(2) dictionaries designed for students in grade three or grade four and extending through grade six; and

(3) dictionaries whose use extends above grade six (Miller et al 1983: 7).

Based on the established groups, "[a]uthority, vocabulary, entry format, special features, and physical format […are] described for the group as a whole, with reference to some distinctive features of each of the subgroups …" (Miller et al 1983:

7). The Zimbabwean English beginners correspond to the users of dictionaries in the first group. With the exception of *authority*, which is discussed in relation to the commitment and experience of each dictionary's publisher and the concerned lexicographical teams and their expertise, it may be noted that all the aspects which are discussed in relation to each group of the dictionaries may be regarded as its main features. Accordingly, they are covered between 5.5.1 and 5.5.7. Although this chapter is mainly concerned with the dictionaries in the first group, i.e. dictionaries which may be considered for Zimbabwean English beginners, it will be noted that some features are shared with the other dictionaries where differences only lie in the extent of the prevalence of certain features.

5.5.1 Cover design and cover entries

The most striking feature about the cover designs of children's and school dictionaries, particularly those targeted at young children is that they are colourful. Bright colours are used for cover entries which include pictorial illustrations (see 5.5.6 below) and excerpts from the dictionary[10]. The OVFD and the OFD even alternate colours for letters constituting the titles (see for example, Figure 3).

[10] This researcher was left without any doubt regarding the strong impact of colourful cover designs for children's dictionaries when two friends, a couple, visited with their four-year old daughter. Of all the books that were packed in my bookcase, she was attracted by the OFD and asserted that it was a children's book.

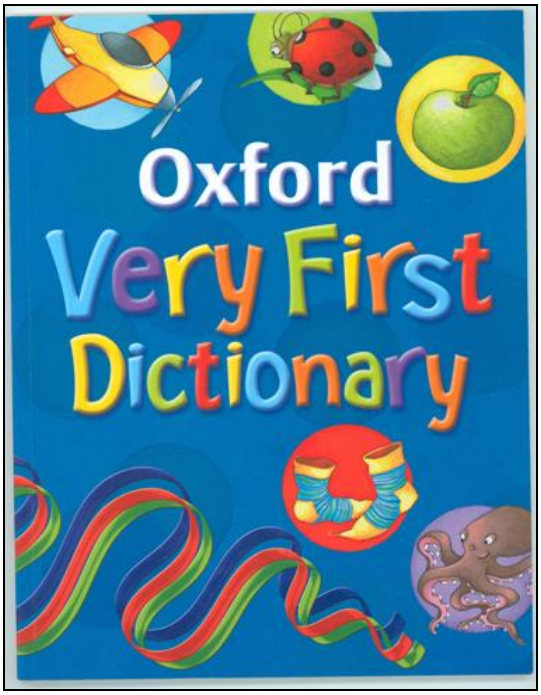


Figure 3: The front cover of the OVFD

Back covers bear more informative entries outlining and illustrating the contents of the dictionaries, as Figure 4 below illustrates. Age indication also seems to be prevalent in most children's dictionaries. What may be noted is that these entries, just like introductions and prefaces in some dictionaries, are directed at parents and teachers rather than the users of the dictionaries who are referred to in the third person. To lexicographers and publishers, it seems parents and teachers are of more importance because they are the ones who recommend, choose and buy dictionaries for children. However, the rejection of *The Rainbow Dictionary* in Miller et al (1983: 34) indicates that dictionary selectors would be well-advised not to judge children's dictionaries only by their attractive cover designs and entries.

Figure 4: The back cover of the *Oxford Bilingual Dictionary: isiZulu/English*

5.5.2 Page layout

Page layout is another key distinguishing feature between young children's dictionaries and those that are designed for adult users. Figure 5 and Figure 6 illustrate how space is utilised to produce a captivating page layout in two dictionaries

of the former type, namely the OFD and the OVFD respectively.

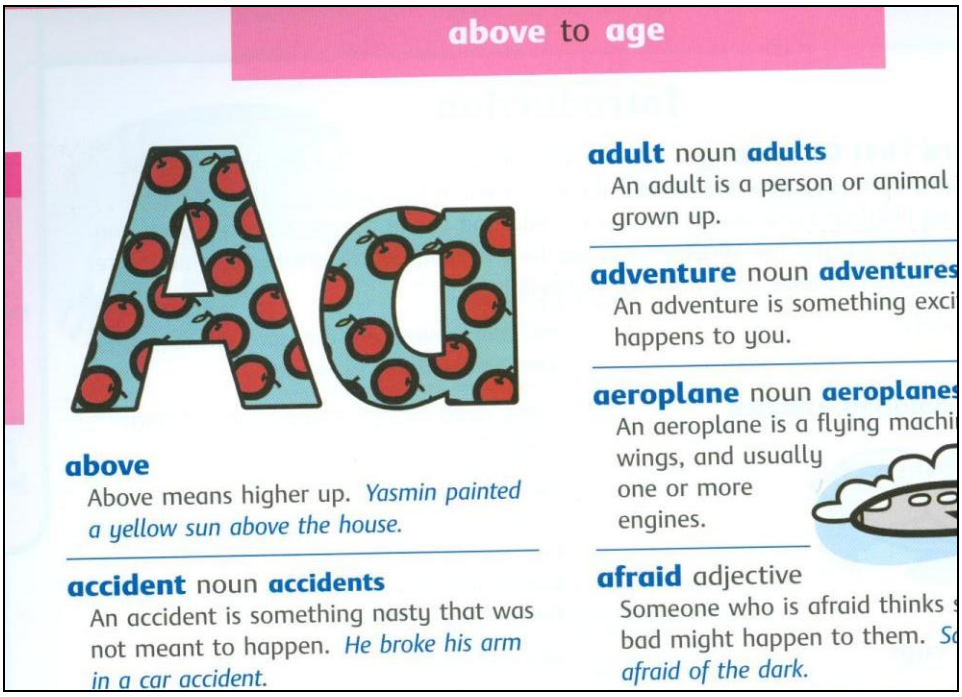


Figure 5: The top part of page 1 of the OFD

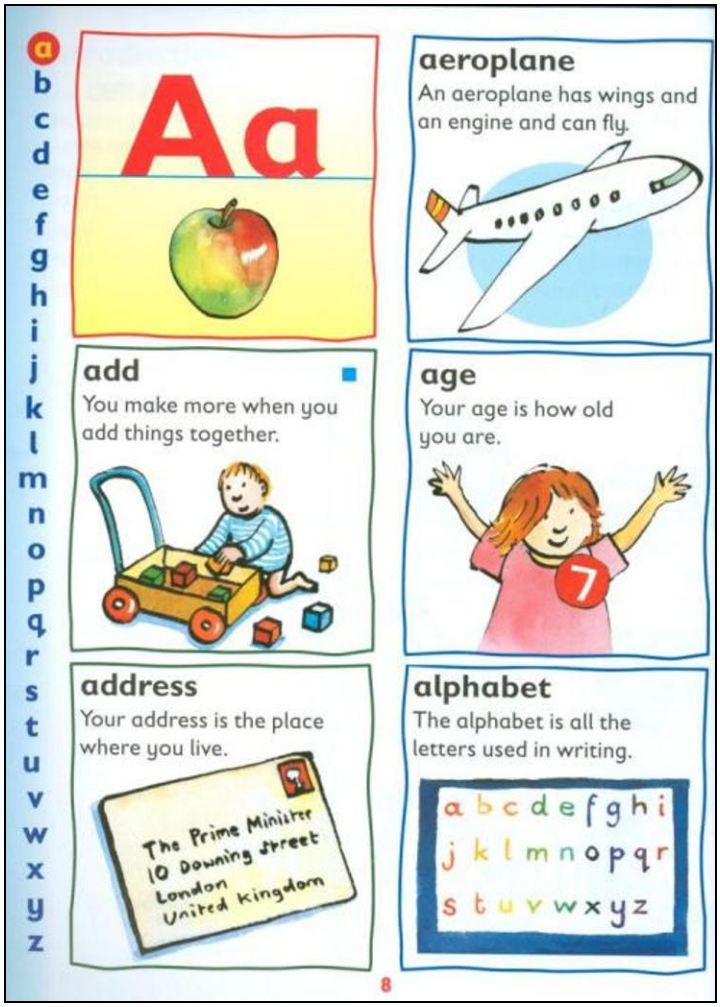


Figure 6: The layout of the OVFD

As can be seen from the above figures, space is generously used in young children's dictionaries. The density of data is very low, owing to the few lemmata per page and limited number of data categories per article (see 5.5.3 and 5.5.4 below), relatively big font sizes, wide horizontal and vertical spaces and margins. Some dictionaries supply headers on top to indicate the first and last lemmata on each page, but others do not. The alphabet is quite often repeated on the outside margins of each page or page spread. It may also be noted that the manuscript font type is used. This means that the small letters *a* or *g* which the dictionary users are taught as part of handwriting, will be found, as can be seen Figure 5 and Figure 6 above, instead of *a* and *g* to which the learners will be exposed later on.

Space generosity is complemented by the use of bright colours for alphabetical listings on the margins, headers, lemmata, illustrations and other supplied data categories. Regarding all these aspects, it should be noted that the age of the target users plays an important role. Thus space generosity will decrease with the increasing age of dictionary users, just like font size and the use of illustrations.

5.5.3 Macrostructure

The main differences between the macrostructures of children's dictionaries and adult dictionaries lie in composition and presentation. Children's dictionaries are characterised by macrostructural simplicity, both with respect to composition and presentation as discussed in 5.5.3.1 and 5.5.3.2 respectively.

5.5.3.1 Lemma selection

Children's or school dictionaries have, perhaps after the series of Thorndike-Century dictionaries, been compiled around reduced and carefully selected vocabulary items. According to the supplied information, the OVFD contains over 300 words. Nouns tend to dominate the lemma stock and most of them refer to 'concrete' objects that children see on a regular basis. In this regard, the criteria used to select lemmata for children's dictionaries need to be identified. At least two seem to be prevalent in many dictionaries. The first main factor that is considered is age whereby the dictionaries attempt to cover the vocabulary that children at the respective age group are expected to encounter or need to develop their language competences. In this connection, the blurb of the OVFD emphatically states that the "over 300" words covered by the dictionary are actually "first words". The number of words covered is accordingly expected to increase with the age of target users as subsequent dictionaries are compiled to meet the gradually increasing needs of the users. The other factor that is important in determining the scope and complexity of vocabulary covered in children's and school dictionaries is their level of education. Just like age, but in a more consequential way, the level of education determines the type of language that children encounter or need in their learning of which the demands keep

on increasing. In terms of the lexicographical function theory, the level of education has consequences for the situations in which the users find themselves, the problems they are bound to experience in the respective situations and their lexicographical needs (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003, Tarp 2008). Consequently, children's or school dictionaries are often or ought to be based on children's books and educational materials which are meant to be used at the respective educational levels of the target users. For example, the blurb of the *Longman Primary Dictionary* (LPD) in its 2009 edition states that the dictionary "has been carefully compiled to include vocabulary which students at this level will need, and contains over 8,000 entries from many school subjects including maths, geography and science". On the other hand, the OPD simply states in bold: "All the words you need", and then "covers international and up-to-date curriculum words needed at primary level".

It is in the light of the foregoing that most of the dictionaries in this category indicate the number of lemmata they cover as a way of justifying their appropriateness to a particular group of users. However, like most dictionary types, the numbers of lemmata that are reported are not always reliable. At least two reasons may explain this unreliability. According to Miller (1983: 8), this stems from a lack of a consistent criterion for counting the words treated, with some publishers counting each inflected form of each word while others count entry words only. This reason also applies to the other types of dictionaries. The other reason seems to be dishonesty from either the lexicographer or the publisher, possibly for marketing reasons whereby numbers are simply inflated. An example is the OVFD which indicates that it covers over 300 first words on the blurb yet a sample count indicates that about 250 words are treated. In this dictionary, no inflected forms of words are included so that the first reason highlighted above does not apply.

5.5.3.2 Arrangement of lemmata

According to its introduction, "the *Oxford Very First Dictionary* is an ideal introduction to dictionaries and other alphabetically ordered reference works" (p.7). Accordingly, a letter by letter alphabetical macrostructural arrangement is employed. This is hoped to develop the ability of looking up words in dictionaries, most of which

have alphabetical macrostructures. This is the case in other children's dictionaries such as *Collins First School Dictionary* and many others (cf. Miller et al 1983).

However, some lexicographers are cognisant of the challenges that are likely to be faced by the young users who have not yet fully mastered the alphabet. These lexicographers have made their dictionaries more user-friendly by using a thematic arrangement of lemmata alongside an alphabetical one. The Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries, which are bilingual (see 5.6 below), employ this approach in a very effective way. These dictionaries are divided into three sections. The first section has a thematic macrostructure while the other two are alphabetically arranged, with the second section being similar to alphabetical dictionaries meant for adult users. However, the third section adopts the indexing approach in which page numbers are used to guide users to the pages where the words are treated more comprehensively. The entire macrostructural arrangement approach adopted by Maskew Miller Longman makes the dictionaries poly-accessible. Not only are users without the mastery of the alphabet guided by the thematic arrangement, they are also introduced to the alphabetical arrangement and supported in using it in a very user-friendly way.

5.5.4 Types of microstructures and articles

A combination of obligatory and extended obligatory microstructures are used in the dictionaries studied for this chapter. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 141), the former refers to microstructural items that are found in each and every article. The latter then refers to a microstructural presentation in which certain articles contain more than obligatory data categories (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 142). This depends on the lexical item specific features which also result in another distinction between single and complex articles (cf. Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 91). Thus, there exists a relationship between the types of microstructure, i.e. whether it is obligatory or extended obligatory, and the types of articles, i.e. whether they are single or complex articles. However, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) caution that this relationship is not always a given.

> An extended obligatory microstructure does not necessarily imply a complex article but all complex articles display an extended obligatory microstructure because the extended obligatory microstructure makes provision for the inclusion of those additional data categories, items or more comprehensive treatment within a given search area that differentiates a complex article from a single article (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 142).

It is mainly those dictionaries that are targeted at the lower tier of the potential user group that only display obligatory microstructures. A look at Figure 5, for instance, indicates that each article in the OVFD is constituted by a lemma sign, a paraphrase of meaning and a pictorial illustration. This simple microstructural presentation is suitable for the dictionary users who have simple needs as far as language acquisition is concerned. These data categories are distinctly presented so that these targeted users, who have limited or no previous experience of using dictionaries can easily master the access route and encounter no further problems once they get appropriately oriented on the inner access route. For example, the lemma is in bold blue font while the paraphrase of meaning is in regular black font. A pictorial illustration is immediately presented and all these data categories constituting each article are bordered in a square, thereby further eliminating the problems of delimiting the extent of each article on the part of the young user.

However, as more data categories are included to satisfy the increasing needs of the users as a result of their more demanding situations with age and level of schooling, the density and complexity of the microstructure gradually increase. The microstructure of the OFD suggests that the dictionary builds on the reference skills which the users would have acquired by using the OVFD, although the first publication dates of the two dictionaries indicate that the latter was conceived later, probably after a realisation that the former was not simple enough as a first dictionary. The main difference between the microstructures of the two dictionaries is that the articles of the OFD are not uniform. An obligatory microstructure prevails in some of the articles while others display an extended obligatory microstructure. In addition to the three obligatory data items, the extended obligatory microstructure of the OFD constitutes the following additional data categories:

- Part of speech labels

  These are provided for words which fall under the grammatical categories of nouns, verbs and adjectives. The labels are given in full forms rather than abbreviations as in dictionaries compiled for adults. This is commendable because it does not burden the young dictionary users with the learning of the abbreviated forms in addition to learning what nouns, verbs and adjectives are, as they are unfortunately not explained anywhere in the dictionary, either in the front matter or main text. Unfortunately, this type of data is provided in an inconsistent manner. Not all lemmata are labelled as the editors intend to introduce "simple grammar such as word classes like verbs or nouns" (p.3). Some adjectives are labelled, but others, such as *next* are not, while other word classes such as adverbs are completely overlooked.

- Different forms of words

  These include plural forms for countable nouns, tenses and singular or plural forms for verbs as well as comparative and superlative forms for adjectives. This way, the dictionary provides important grammatical guidance which supports vocabulary acquisition as users are assisted with the knowledge and skills of using words in different contexts. The different forms of words are supplied immediately after part of speech labels and the blue bold font used for lemmata is their indicator.

- Examples of word use

  The usage of some lemmatised words in the OFD is illustrated by means of examples after the paraphrases of meaning. The examples are full sentences and are in a blue italics font. This makes them distinct enough for the user to realise that they constitute a different data category. In the case of articles where two senses of the lemma are explained, a relevant example is given immediately after each paraphrase of meaning. This ensures that there is no confusion on the part of the user regarding the applicability of a certain example.

- Pictorial illustrations

  For some words, paraphrases of meaning are complemented by pictorial illustrations. Unlike in the OVFD, not every word is illustrated. The number of illustrations per page ranges from one to five. This indicates that the users of the OFD are expected to be able to get more meaning information from the paraphrases of meaning.

- Article boundaries

  Horizontal lines are used to separate articles in the OFD, compared to the grid format in the OVFD. Given the fact that the users of this dictionary are still young children with limited reference skills, these article boundaries are still important.

In the foregoing, the microstructures of the OVFD and the OFD have been described, mainly to show that the latter provides more support to English language acquisition and use by young children compared to the former. The inclusion of more data categories in the latter, depending on the types of lexical items that are being treated, has resulted in it having an extended obligatory microstructure compared to the obligatory microstructure of the OVFD. This supposes more reference skills from the target users of the OFD and this is understandable, given that the users will be relatively older and more experienced, supposing that they would have used the OVFD. The anticipated progressive development of reference skills is further inferred when one considers the microstructures of other dictionaries published by OUP whose target users include the Zimbabwean potential users with which this chapter is concerned. These are the *Oxford Junior Dictionary* (OJD), the OPD and the *Oxford Children's Dictionary* (OCD) whose target users fall between 7 to 11 years. Because these dictionaries share target users with the OFD, the only major differences between their microstructures and those of the latter is that they include a few extra data categories. This results in the introduction of complex articles, characterised not only by additional data categories such as subject field labels, special caution regarding the spelling of homophones and indication of pronunciation, but also comprehensive treatment and use of lexicographical text boxes (Gouws and Prinsloo 2010). However, since these dictionaries also have targeted users of up to 11 years of age, who have

been classified in the previous chapter as intermediate learners (see 4.1.2), they will be given more attention in Chapter Six. The description of the microstructures and types of articles in the OVFD and the OFD should be sufficient in giving some insights into the possibilities of addressing the needs of the Zimbabwean English beginners.

5.5.5 Textual book structure/Frame structure

A textual book structure (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989: 330) or a frame structure (Gouws 2002; 2004; 2007) is employed in the studied dictionaries. This means that not only the word lists (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989: 333) or the main texts which are regarded as main venues of lexicographical assistance constitute the dictionaries. There are also 'outer texts' (Gouws 2004; 2007) or 'outside matter' (Nielsen 2009) which complement the main text to complete the dictionaries as 'text compounds'. Some of these texts have an important role in the realisation of dictionary functions and the genuine purpose. Accordingly, they fit into the categories of either integrated outer texts Gouws (2004) or function-adhering outer texts (Gouws 2007). Integrated outer texts "function in co-ordination with the central list and are aids in ensuring an optimal and full retrieval of information and an accomplishment of the genuine purpose" of the dictionary (Gouws 2004: 72). They are thus integrated into the genuine purpose of the dictionary. This is opposed to non-integrated outer texts which are "not needed to retrieve information presented in the central list", while, at the same time, not adding "to the treatment of the subject of the dictionary" (Gouws 2004: 72). The distinction between function-adhering and non-function-adhering outer texts (Gouws 2007) has to do with the relationship of outer texts with the lexicographical functions prevailing in the central list. Function-adhering outer texts are those by means of which a given lexicographical function can be achieved (Gouws 2007: 82). They may either be integrated or non-integrated into the genuine purpose or the main text of the dictionary. Integrated function-adhering outer texts advance the pursuit of the genuine purpose or at least one lexicographical function supported by the main text. Non-integrated function-adhering outer texts are not integrated into the genuine purpose of the dictionary. Other permutations with regard

to the analysis of outer texts in terms of being integrated or non-integrated on the one hand and also in terms of being function-adhering or non-function-adhering are discussed in Gouws (2007). In the next sub-subsections, focus will be on the integrated and function-adhering outer texts in the studied children's dictionaries to demonstrate how the texts contribute to the accomplishment of lexicographical functions and genuine purposes of the studied children's dictionaries. The topic is revisited in 6.9.2 but with regards to dictionaries that are suitable for intermediate learners.

5.5.5.1 Front matter

The following bullets list some front matter texts that are found in the studied dictionaries.

- Contents pages

  In the studied dictionaries, contents pages are used to give dictionary overviews and to guide users to different components. A surprise exception is the OFD which does not include such a text. It is surprising that this dictionary omitted such a text not least because other OUP dictionaries, including the OVFD, include it, but mainly because of the importance of such a text. As in other types of books, tables of contents facilitate rapid access to specific components or pages in which the required data is located.

- Introduction/Prefaces

  While the contents pages provide overviews of the dictionary which mainly assist with the rapid access to dictionary components by listing the headings of different dictionary components, detailed overviews regarding dictionary components, dictionary functions and the procedures employed by lexicographers are outlined in the introductions or prefaces. Consider the following introductory remarks from the OVFD:

  The **Oxford Very First Dictionary** helps young children

> enjoy and discover the features of a dictionary. It contains 300 words in alphabetical order, each with a simple definition and a colourful picture. There are also additional end sections with words that children will find useful when writing. The words have been chosen to support and develop speaking, reading, and writing (p.6).

From the above quotation, it is important that the lexicographer has made it very clear that the dictionary is not just another book in the children's selection or a 'nice to have'. Rather, it should be the learner's companion in the language development activities, namely speaking, reading and writing. It is, therefore, important that lexicographers employ front matter texts or prefatory material to inform users about each dictionary. Probably the notable limitation of some introductory information in dictionaries aimed at young users, including the OVFD and the OFD, is that they tend to be directed at either parents or teachers but not at children, who are the users of the dictionary. The users are referred to in the third person. This has already been noted with respect to cover entries. While it may be justified that cover entries are directed at parents who buy or teachers who recommend dictionaries for children, there are reasons for arguing against this practice when it comes to introductory sections and any other internal text components. These will be discussed shortly after a brief account on guides to dictionary use, which also display the same practice.

- Guides to dictionary use

In some of the studied dictionaries, separate guides to dictionary use are provided whereas other dictionaries provide such guidance as part of introductory or prefatory material. In some dictionaries, guides to dictionary use are explicitly named as such, or as 'How to use this / the dictionary'. Yet in others guides to dictionary use may be obtained through the user's familiarisation with dictionary features in texts named as such or outlined in the introductory texts. Pronunciation symbols as explained the LPD are part of guides to dictionary use. As indicated with regard to cover entries and introductory or prefatory matter, guides to dictionary use in most children's dictionaries are directed at parents and teachers but not children. The Oxford

first bilingual dictionaries make an effort to depart from this practice, as indicated for instance by the unambiguous Zulu heading of the user guide in the *IsiZulu + English* dictionary (p. 4). However, it does not only revert back to the ambiguous use of the third person in reference to children, it goes on to provide a section headed *Usizo lwaso kuthisha noma umzali* (Help for the teacher or parent) which is four times larger than the section which, with a benefit of doubt, may be regarded as addressed to children. This is regrettable since children as the target users of the dictionaries will always have to depend on teachers or parents instead of using dictionaries themselves. This may be counter-productive in the development of a dictionary culture. Perhaps separate guides would be necessary, one for parents or teachers as selectors or buyers of the dictionaries and a compulsory one for children as the dictionary users.

5.5.5.2 Back matter

All the dictionaries considered except the OCD and the LPD have back matter texts. The following topics are covered in the back matter of the respective dictionaries:

- 'Words we write a lot' in the OVFD or 'Words we use too much' in the OFD.
- Colours
- Shapes
- Days of the week
- Months of the year
- Numbers
- The alphabet (with an illustration of one word falling under each letter).
- Opposites in the OFD
- Place and position words in the OFD
- More than one in the OFD
- Your body in the OFD
- Become a word explorer in the OFD

An analysis of the back matter texts in the studied dictionaries indicates that they are employed for three main reasons. Firstly, there are back matter texts which are employed to advance the main lexicographical functions covered by the main text, i.e. developing language knowledge and skills. These texts fall in the category of integrated function-adhering texts (Gouws 2007: 82). They include texts such as 'Opposites', 'Place and position words', 'More than one' and 'Become a word explorer' in the OFD. Secondly, there are some back matter texts which do not serve any of the main functions prevailing in the main text, i.e. developing language skills, but rather a cognitive function which is of importance in the general or academic knowledge growth of young children. These texts are non-integrated function-adhering (Gouws 2007: 82) and they include colours, shapes, numbers, days of the week, months of the year, etc. Finally, there are those texts of which the main role is to develop dictionary skills in the young children. The user's engagement with some of these texts on their own does not result in the realisation of any function, be it text production or text reception, but requires the user to perform a dictionary consultation procedure in order to realise a certain function. Examples of such texts are those dealing with dictionary activities in the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries, which may be categorised as integrated non-function-adhering (Gouws 2007: 83).

Overall, the back matter texts of the studied dictionaries indicate that children do not only need dictionaries to acquire linguistic knowledge and skills required to solve communication problems. They also need dictionaries that develop their knowledge as it unfolds within their home or school environment or world at large. With the dictionary being a container of knowledge (McArthur 1986; 1998), it is thus essential that the dictionary at this stage goes beyond solving those problems which the young children encounter in their situations of communication or cognitive development and inculcates in them the skills that they will need in order to continue using dictionaries in the future which will be characterised by more complex communication and cognitive needs due to the problems that will emerge from more complex situations which are characteristic of adult life. Outer texts which aim at developing dictionary skills are considered characteristic of children's dictionaries because they will not be necessary in adult dictionaries whose users will be expected to have developed these basic skills.

5.5.6 Pictorial illustrations

It may have emerged from the previous sections that pictorial illustrations constitute a major feature in children's dictionaries. However, the illustrations have thus far been discussed in a very cursory way, e.g. as part of the microstructure in 5.4.2. Yet the studied dictionaries reveal that there is more to pictorial illustrations beyond being part of the microstructure. It is also important to note that the illustrations used in dictionaries are of a wide range and that the extent of their employment varies from one dictionary to another.

Regarding the nature of pictorial illustrations, it is notable that they include photographs, which may be either in colour or black and white, detailed colour-washed line drawings as well as sketchy and plain line drawings. The choice which the lexicographer makes has impacts on the overall effect of the illustrations and the user-friendliness of the dictionary. For example, while line drawings are more widely used because they are cheaper to produce than real photographs, at times they send a distorted message. Pictorial illustrations constitute a major reason why *The Rainbow Dictionary* is not recommended for children in Miller et al (1983). It is regretted that:

> Colors are flat and look splashed on in a haphazard fashion or in poor registration … predominantly primary; moreover, they are unrealistic, with numerous blue animals and blue bark on trees. A purple bull, a green camel, a purple-and-red cat, and a purple bear all illustrate *animal* (Miller et al 1983: 13).

This shows that the use of pictorial illustrations needs careful planning; otherwise it may severely lower the standard of the dictionary. Besides the issue of whether pictorial illustrations are realistic or exaggerated, there are some items which may be difficult to illustrate. For example, under the theme 'Umndeni nabangani / Family and friends' in the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English*, the illustrations do not explain how *aunt*, *mother* and *sister* differ, given that the provided illustrations are the only source of semantic information. The only thing that cannot be doubted from each of the illustrations is that the people referred to are females, yet the illustrated words denote kinship relationships.

Another issue to consider pertains to the size and positioning of the illustrations. Very small illustrations may not achieve the intended effect while bigger illustrations may

overlap the illustrated articles. This is noted in Miller et al (1983: 15) with respect to *My First Dictionary* by Stephen Krensky. However, the dictionaries that were closely studied for this chapter do not have this problem, as illustrated in Figure 6 where the generous utilisation of space is complemented by clearly marked article boundaries demarcated by grids.

In some of the studied dictionaries, pictorial illustrations do not only serve as data on the comment on semantics. They also assume lemmatic positions after which words assume lemmatic addresses. This is especially the case in the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries and the first section of the Maskew Miller Longman dictionaries (see 5.7). In such cases, the dictionaries employ pictorial illustrations to facilitate the acquisition of vocabulary, assuming that the illustrations represent familiar phenomena of which words or their spellings may not be known. Finally, for aesthetic value, which is not simply a case of cosmetics considering the users, the illustrations that are used in the main texts are reproduced in the outer texts and cover entries. For example, the OVFD bears pictorial illustrations from the front to the back covers. This way, the illustrations are meant to attract the users and encourage them to use dictionaries without encouragement from their teachers or parents.

5.5.7 Paraphrases of meaning

In 5.4.2.4, it was noted that each article in the OVFD contains a paraphrase of meaning. Paraphrases of meaning in children's dictionaries are formulated in a manner that makes them accessible to the target users. They do not follow Zgusta's (1971) and Landau's (2001) principles of defining, which do not take into account the competences of the specific target users. This is attributable to the principles of Thorndike who observed that paraphrases of meaning in adult or general dictionaries are not suitable for young users. Consider the following part-articles:

> **arm**
>
> Your hand is at the end of your arm … (OVFD).

> **arm …**
>
> Your arm is the part of your body between your shoulder and your hand (OFD).
>
> **arm …**
>
> the part of your body between your shoulder and your hand… (*Longman New Junior English Dictionary* (LNJED)).

Paying close attention to the above-given articles indicates that the first article is intended for users with the least language competences while the last one, although from a different publisher, is targeted at more competent users. For example, the first paraphrase of meaning does not say what an arm is, but it tells the user that the hand, which is more likely to be known first, is at the end of the arm. The second paraphrase of meaning includes *shoulder*, the assumption being that the user should know a bit more at this level. Finally, the last one is in the form of a phrase, unlike the previous two which are in the form of full sentences. This also assumes a higher competence from the user and that assumed competence is turned into the lexicographer's advantage in the form of space economy. All this clearly indicates that explaining the meaning of words for young users requires more simplicity. Although the simplicity implies that the paraphrases of meaning may not answer the question "What is …?" with regards to the object, the use of illustrations and examples would provide that answer.

5.6 The bi-/multilingual dimension in children's dictionaries

Besides English monolingual children's dictionaries which attracted more attention in the foregoing, bilingual or even multilingual dictionaries treating English alongside major indigenous languages of respective countries have been compiled in countries such as Spain, Italy and South Africa to support English acquisition by young children corresponding to the Zimbabwean English beginners. In South Africa, OUP has over the recent years produced such bilingual dictionaries to facilitate the learning of English alongside the ten other official languages and two multilingual dictionaries, each treating English with either Nguni (IsiXhosa, IsiZulu and Siswati) or Sotho (Sepedi, Sesotho and Setswana) languages, in addition to Afrikaans. Maskew Miller

Longman has also produced Foundation Phase Bilingual dictionaries featuring some of South Africa's official languages alongside English. These dictionaries share a lot of features with their monolingual counterparts, as indicated by their citation in certain parts of Section 5.5. In this section, they will be discussed with the main focus being their bi-/multilingual dimension and the extent to which it facilitates English acquisition at early ages. This will also be an important consideration in the lexicographical intervention in English acquisition by Zimbabwean beginners.

Bilingual children's dictionaries such as the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries and the Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries should be understood from at least two main lexicographical traditions, namely the bilingual tradition and the Thorndike tradition. In Africa, bilingual dictionaries have been compiled for a long time now but children's dictionaries, especially targeted at very young users are still very rare. The Oxford first bilingual dictionaries were first published in South Africa as recent as 2007 to target "children in their first few years of learning". Notably, the same publisher had already published multilingual primary dictionaries targeted at older children far back in 1991. This indicates that it is only recently that young learners are also being given serious recognition, if not priority, as potential beneficiaries of lexicographical support in Africa. In South Africa, it seems to be no longer an issue whether or not young learners deserve lexicographical support. Instead, the issue now is whether the dictionaries are user-friendly or not and how more user-friendliness and a dictionary culture may be developed simultaneously. In the case of Zimbabwe, the main question should then be: Can the Oxford and Maskew Miller Longman models be adopted and adapted to support the acquisition of English at the elementary phase in Zimbabwe? If possible, what considerations should be taken into account? These questions require a closer examination of the South African dictionaries as well as the lexicographical environment on the one hand and the Zimbabwean lexicographical environment on the other hand. By lexicographical environment is meant the national language policies and the language-in-education policies and practices in particular as situations in which lexicographical assistance may be sought and provided.

The role of bi- or multilingual dictionaries in the acquisition and use of an additional language by young children is made possible by the conditions and practices surrounding the language acquisition process. As noted earlier, English is learnt at school as a second or even third language by many Zimbabweans. The language-in-education policy puts more emphasis on the use of languages that are supposed to be understood by the majority of learners, namely the national languages or minority languages, as languages of teaching and learning prior to the fourth grade, as expounded by the 1953 UNESCO research. However, it was noted that some Zimbabwean schools introduce the English medium before the fourth grade and that English is also taught via the medium of native languages. The use of native languages in teaching English and in English medium classes is a worldwide practice, with some scholars arguing in favour while others argue against the practice (cf. Miles 2004, Soulignavong and Souvannasy 2009). The production of bilingual learners' dictionaries indicates that lexicographers have upheld their responsibility of trying to address specific problems faced by specific users in specific situations rather than condemning the practices which put the users in such situations.

The production of bilingual children's dictionaries in South Africa was not only motivated by the importance of English which is central in this dissertation, but the multilingual character of the nation, an attribute which each individual citizen is encouraged to possess. The genuine purpose of each of the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries is supporting the acquisition of English and the native language. This is apparent on the front cover of each dictionary, with the IsiZulu + English dictionary clearly marked "Funda Isingisi (learn English) / Learn IsiZulu". In the guide to dictionary use, it is once again stated that "This dictionary has been designed to help children in their first few years of learning English or IsiZulu as an additional language" (p.5). Unlike the Oxford dictionaries, the Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries are mainly intended to support the development of the young children's native languages, especially in the literary form, and learning English to a certain extent. Accordingly, it is important that the models that led to the production of these dictionaries are not adopted uncritically for the Zimbabwean situation, not because they are not sound but because of the differences in the genuine purposes of the South African dictionaries and the Zimbabwean prospective

dictionaries proposed in this chapter. A closer examination of the South African dictionaries should determine the extent to which they may be adopted.

The bilingual dimension of the Oxford and Maskew Miller Longman dictionaries in South Africa means that different types of data are provided in these dictionaries in both English and a native language. Let us first try to unpack the kinds of information and assistance that users may obtain from the dictionaries and determine whether these are in line with the genuine purposes of the dictionaries. To do this, article stretches from the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary IsiZulu + English* and the *Longman Isichazi-magama-siseko: IsiXhosa / English* (Longman Foundation Phase Dictionary: IsiXhsosa / English) are presented for illustrative exemplification below:

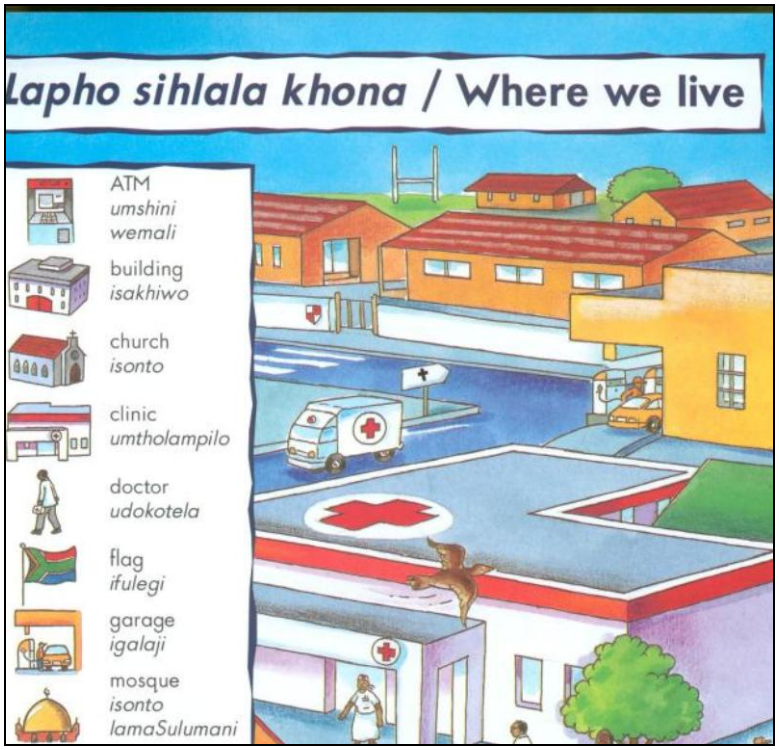


Figure 7: Partial article stretch from the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English*

Figure 8: Partial article stretch from the Longman *Isichazi-magama-siseko: IsiXhosa / IsiNgisi*

The two dictionaries provide dictionary using guides in their front matter to explain the dictionary features and the kinds of assistance that users may get from them. This is done in both English and the native language forming the language pair of each bilingual dictionary. However, the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary IsiZulu + English* seems to be too economic with space and consequently less informative. The user guide in each language in the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English* is a page long, including a zoomed out picture of a real page from the dictionary. The bulk of the material regarding dictionary use is directed at the teacher or the parent rather than the targeted users (see 5.5.5.1). However, the major limitation is that the kinds of information and assistance that the user may get from this dictionary are not identified and explained in an explicit and concise manner beyond stating that:

> Because the curriculum expects learners to do more than learn lists of words in their additional language, this dictionary focuses on helping them use the language they're learning and become actively literate in their additional language (p.5).

As far as data and lexicographical assistance are concerned, especially with regard to the acquisition of English as an additional language, the following needs to be noted from the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English:*

- Pictures: These assume the position of guiding elements of the articles in the dictionaries. They may either be familiar or unfamiliar to the user. If the former is the case, the user may then need information regarding the name of the picture. However, the user may be unfamiliar with the picture but the name of the illustrated object, of which the picture will confirm that the assistance is now cognitive.

- English word: This comes immediately after the picture. In that way, it may provide assistance with vocabulary, i.e. the name of the picture to both the Zulu and the English native speaking learner. However, it appears that the English native speaker is expected to know the object and its name since the dictionary is meant to assist him/her in learning Zulu. In any case, either a Zulu native or English native learner gets information on spelling from the English word.

- Zulu word: This may also be useful to both sets of users. The Zulu native speaking learner may still remain unclear regarding the object beyond the English word, especially if he/she was unfamiliar with the picture. The Zulu equivalent will then help by providing meaning information, hoping that the learner would be familiar with the name of the object in the native language. The English native speaker will acquire the Zulu equivalent as a new vocabulary item, together with its spelling in the same way as the Zulu native speaker learns from the English word.

The three bullets sum up what the user may learn from each article from the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English*. The assistance regarding the active use of language, i.e. text production, is very limited in the main text because it comes far in between the articles in the form of illustrative examples which range from zero to two per page. Otherwise the learner will have to rely on the back matter texts for this kind of help.

Although the Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries are intended to support the acquisition of English only to a certain extent, the manner in which its data are presented is more user-friendly compared to the Oxford dictionaries. In addition to the section illustrated by Figure 8 above, which is similar to the main text

of the *Oxford First Bilingual Dictionary: IsiZulu + English*, illustrated by Figure 7, the *Longman Isichazi-magama-siseko: IsiXhosa / English* (and that applies to the rest of the Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries) has a section in which the alphabetically arranged lemmata are treated as follows:

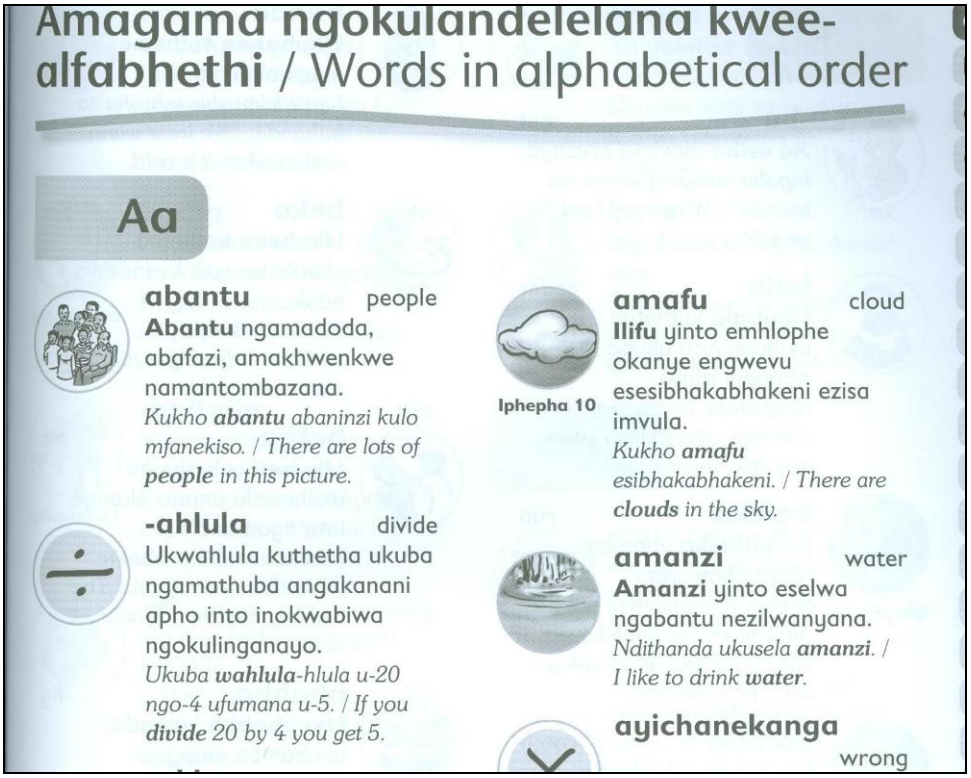


Figure 9: Page 1 of the *Longman Isichazi-magama-siseko: IsiXhosa / IsiNgisi*

The first section of the Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries provides similar information categories and assistance as the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries, the only difference being that the English word is presented after the native language one, a reverse of the order in the Oxford dictionaries. This means that the additional language learner of English will acquire English vocabulary and spelling information via the picture and the native language word. Section 2 then builds on this by providing paraphrases of meaning in the native language, a procedure which certainly increases the understanding of a concept or object. This understanding is further elucidated by examples of usage which are supplied in both English and the native language. The examples provide text production guidance as they demonstrate to the user how the words are actually used in context. From this, it

is clear that the statement regarding the value of the Foundation Phase dictionaries in English acquisition, i.e. that they facilitate it to a certain extent since their genuine purpose is to facilitate native language acquisition (both text production and text reception), is rather modest. In fact, the dictionaries fulfill the genuine purposes of the Oxford dictionaries, i.e. supporting additional language learning, in addition to supporting native language learning. Nevertheless, both Oxford first bilingual dictionaries and Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries provide more lexicographical options to be considered for the early childhood English acquisition in Zimbabwe.

5.7 Lessons from history, theory and practice of lexicography

In Chapter Four, it was reported that while teachers acknowledge that dictionaries may play an important role in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe, including by learners at the beginner level, the general view was that there were no appropriate dictionaries in this regard (see also Chapter Seven). Because of a relatively low dictionary culture in Zimbabwe, which has not spared teachers, only those dictionaries meant for adults such as the OALD seem to be known. Therefore, any efforts of providing lexicographical support which includes all the potential users who find themselves in situations where dictionary assistance regarding English may be helpful must be grounded in the history, theory and practice of lexicography from established traditions. This section expressly seeks to draw lessons from the historical, theoretical and practical groundwork undertaken in the previous sections and those lessons will provide elements of a model that will be ultimately formulated and tested in Chapter Seven.

Firstly, drawing from the lexicographical function theory, Zimbabwean English beginners were characterised in 4.1.1. Both cognitive and communicative situations in which they may need lexicographical support were identified and discussed in 5.1. Based on their characterisation and situations, the lexicographically-relevant needs of Zimbabwean English beginners were identified. From this, it may be firmly asserted that dictionaries may play an important role in the potential users' English acquisition and usage.

Secondly, the history and practice of lexicography was interrogated to investigate the extent to which lexicographical support has been made available for similar users from other countries but in similar situations. Section 5.4 revealed that the history of English dictionaries compiled specifically for corresponding users in terms of age and educational level in other countries is long. Dictionaries targeted at elementary users are abundant especially in America, Britain, South Africa and other countries. Given that Zimbabweans need similar support as revealed by the application of the lexicographical function theory, similar dictionaries may definitely play an important role in the acquisition and use of English by Zimbabwean beginners.

Thirdly, following the now long history of production of children's dictionaries, a lot of innovations have taken place as lexicographers try to make the dictionaries suitable to the target users in terms of their primary needs and secondary needs. This became apparent in the examination of the typical features of these dictionaries. It may be noted that unlike in the past, careful lemma and data selection procedures are followed to include data types that match the needs of young users, and that dictionary structures are now carefully planned with evidence of theoretical insights to ensure that the dictionaries match the low dictionary skills of the users. More significantly, it is noted that bi- and multilingual solutions have now been ushered into the practice which began with monolingual dictionaries. From this, it is abundantly clear that lexicographers need to apply a lot of theoretical principles in order to provide the best lexicographical support for their intended target users. Lexicographical theory should not be reserved for dictionaries aimed at adult users alone.

In the light of the foregoing, one crucial question would be whether some or any of the studied dictionaries may be appropriate to Zimbabwean English beginners. The answer is a no. This is not only based on some of the shortcomings of some of the dictionaries which were highlighted. This is rather firmly underpinned on the lexicographical function theory which stipulates that every dictionary is meant for specific users in specific situations. The study of the dictionaries noted, for instance, the emphasis of the use of suitable literature, including curriculum books in the respective countries, to create dictionary bases. Even the adoption of a bilingual approach in South Africa rather than the monolingual approach pioneered in America

and used in Britain is another good example that children's dictionaries are made for very specific users. However, taking note of the different approaches to key lexicographical tasks as well as strengths and limitations of some dictionaries will provide useful elements in the formulation of a model in which Zimbabwean English beginners are deservingly considered as potential users. This will be done in Chapter Seven.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter has established that Zimbabwean English beginners may benefit from lexicographical support in the situations of their acquisition and use of the language. Dictionaries may play an extremely important role in the study of English as a school subject at this level and other subjects which are taught through the English medium. This will not only prepare them for more demanding situations of English usage, such as the strong English medium from the fourth grade upwards and even for long-term careering in which English is central. Dictionaries may help develop the relevant skills which will enable the learners to use different types of dictionaries as required by more demanding situations in the future. These factors will be central in the formulation and testing of a model in Chapter Seven. In the next chapter, focus will be turned onto older users within the primary school level when the English medium has become established, towards and even beyond the Grade 7 public examinations which provide transition to secondary school level. As indicated in 4.1.2, these learners fall under the learner category of intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER SIX

CONSIDERATIONS FOR INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS

6.0 Introduction

The previous chapter demonstrated that dictionaries may play an enormously important supportive role in the early acquisition of English in Zimbabwe. The present one seeks to demonstrate and explore the continued need for lexicographical support as Zimbabweans continue learning and using English at the intermediate level. The chapter is therefore based on a rigorous analysis of the users (see 4.1.2), user situations, problems experienced by the users and user needs. A survey of selected English dictionaries targeted at users with similar characteristics and engaged in similar situations is undertaken. Lexicographical decisions and practices in the selected dictionaries with regard to lemma selection, paraphrases of meaning, translation equivalents, illustrative examples, pictorial illustrations and data distribution are considered. This is meant to explore the capacity and shortcomings of English lexicography as far as such users are concerned. As in the previous chapter, the chapter opens a debate of whether English dictionaries should be compiled specifically for these Zimbabwean potential users. This debate is the main subject of the next chapter.

6.1 User situations of intermediate learners

This section seeks to identify and describe the main situations of English learning and usage by the Zimbabwean intermediate learners which may be supported by dictionaries. Yet again, the situations of the potential users are divided into cognitive and communicative situations. Based on Subsection 4.1.2, the section highlights that there is a progressive variation from the communicative and cognitive situations of the lower-intermediate learner to those of the upper-intermediate learner in terms of the language skills that the learner is expected to acquire and ultimately put to use. This has implications for the remainder of the chapter, i.e. the lexicographical needs and solutions that should be devised in the form of dictionaries.

6.1.1 Cognitive situations

In Chapter Five, two cognitive situations were identified as being of lexicographical importance for English beginners in Zimbabwe. These are:

- The learning of English as a subject
- The learning of the vocabulary used in the other school subjects

The two cognitive situations remain relevant in the case of intermediate learners. However, the situations are more complex and demanding compared to those of beginners. Firstly, while English remains a subject in Grade 4 and throughout the school system, new language structures are introduced, building on the foundations laid in the preceding grades. This pertains mainly to vocabulary and grammar, since the teaching of English was identified as a systematic cognitive situation (see Section 5.1). Secondly, from the lower-intermediate phase, the learners are subjected to a compulsory English-only medium of teaching and learning except in the learning of indigenous languages as subjects. This means that English becomes the language of knowledge in the respective subjects, in addition to communication, which either presupposes or develops the relevant knowledge. Of particular importance here will be terminology and registers of the particular subjects. Therefore, the systematic cognitive situations of learning the various subjects, themselves identified in Chapter Five as of primary interest to LSP lexicography, will be punctuated by sporadic situations where the learners may have punctual needs for information regarding new specialised vocabulary items. However, these will also be integral elements in the communicative situations. It is important to mention that the increase in the depth and breadth of knowledge from Grade 4 throughout the school system will have both quantitative and qualitative implications for the nature of the expected English competence. Accordingly, the production of dictionaries for lower-intermediate, middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners certainly needs to take into account these considerations. As Chapter Four has shown, such a situation is at present not catered for in Zimbabwe where very limited dictionary titles are being used.

6.1.2 Communicative situations

From Grade Four, the English-only medium of instruction with respect to the teaching and learning of the rest of the subjects besides the indigenous languages, as well as the teaching and learning of English as a subject encapsulate the core communicative situations in which lexicographical assistance may be crucial. The situations are fundamentally similar to those identified with respect to beginners, namely:

- Text reception in English
- Text production in English

However, the situations are far simpler for beginners. Naturally, the volume of texts at the intermediate level is higher in the sense that apart from the study of indigenous languages, the use of native languages is a case of violation of the language-in-education policy, which may be mildly considered as a case of tolerance. Furthermore, not only more English texts have to be comprehended and produced by intermediate learners compared to beginners, some of the texts are far more complex. Text reception and text production in English are the communicative situations which characterise not only the study of English and the rest of the school subjects besides indigenous languages, but also everyday class activities and interactions. However, the latter may not be very critical for lexicography. In such a context of extra-curricula activities, it is inconceivable that a lexicographical intervention specifically targeted at intermediate learners would be required. Essentially, these are the skills that need to be mastered at the beginner level, e.g. greetings, making requests, making apologies, etc and they may as well be acquired from other sources, particularly teachers and textbooks. Thus, only those communicative situations which clearly illustrate the increasing complexity of text reception and text production tasks of intermediate learners in a way that enhances an understanding of their lexicographical needs require attention. This may be achieved by further breaking down the two communicative situations in view of the English syllabus from Grade Four upwards, resulting in the following sub-situations:

- Reception of general oral texts produced by teachers in English (now that English is the main medium of instruction);
- Reception of general written texts in English which will characterise increased

reading tasks in English, e.g. novels and longer comprehension passages;

- Reception of (semi-) specialised oral texts in the context of learning the subjects that are then taught in English;
- Reception of (semi-) specialised written texts in the context of learning the subjects that are then taught in English;
- Production of general oral texts in English now that learners are expected to use this language in the classroom except in the study of indigenous languages;
- Production of general written texts in English, particularly in the study of English as a subject, e.g. writing compositions on a variety of topics is examinable from Grade 7 and Form 4;
- Production of (semi-) specialised oral texts in the context of discussions and group-work tasks in various subjects that are then taught in English;
- Production of (semi-) specialised written texts in the context of writing tasks in the various subjects that are then taught in English.

The above extra-lexicographical situations need to be conceived in a concrete way that facilitates the identification of the most critical lexicographically-relevant needs of the intermediate learners. We shall discuss first the communicative situations in the context of English as a school subject from Grade 4. Thereafter the communicative situations in the context of studying various subjects using English will be considered.

It goes without saying that the continuous introduction of more vocabulary and grammatical structures to learners, as indicated in 6.2.1 above, will have impacts on text reception and text production of the learners. The learners will be expected to assimilate those additional structures as new knowledge about the language and increase their communication skills on the basis of that knowledge. Increased communication skills will always be tested in terms of abilities to communicate consistently and correctly in more complex situations that are characteristic of their everyday learning environment. In terms of reception, from Grade 4 upwards, pupils should be able to comprehend teachers giving instructions and teaching English using this language (oral text reception). They should also be able to comprehend the relevant English textbooks (written text reception). Comprehension exercises, which involve reading passages and responding to questions based on the passages, are an important element of the English syllabus which is examinable both at Grade 7 and 'O' Level where it carries at least 20% of the final mark. The relevant skills are

cultivated prior to and throughout the intermediate English learning phase through the reading of a variety of texts as deemed appropriate for the respective levels. For example, comprehension passages for Grade 7 learners are not more than 200 words in length, while those for 'O' Level candidates are over 1000 words long. The passages do not only differ in terms of their length, their constituent parts are also different. Firstly, Grade 7 passages consist of simple sentences of not more than 12 words while 'O' Level passages consist of more complex sentences of up to 30 words. Secondly, Grade 7 passages avoid words which may be considered difficult from the view of an additional language learner of about 12 years while 'O' Level candidates have to deal with them, including explaining the meanings of five of the not so easy words selected from the passage. All this illustrates not only the increasing comprehension tasks but also their increasing complexities. Given the fact that most Zimbabweans learn English as an additional language, dictionaries may play a significant role in addressing some of the comprehension problems and developing the relevant comprehension skills.

While the importance of text reception skills in English lies in the fact that pupils should be able to understand teachers, each other and more importantly a variety of written texts, the English competence of the learners is mainly measured in terms of text production, particularly writing. Whether one qualifies to be regarded as an advanced English learner in Zimbabwe is ultimately determined by the 'O' Level qualification symbol that is obtained after the public examination set and overseen by ZIMSEC. All the writing skills that constitute that examination and all the preceding activities that are meant to develop those skills therefore constitute written text production as an extra-lexicographically relevant situation. The English vocabulary and grammatical structures whose complexity increase with the level of education, which learners need to comprehend, assimilate and master from teachers and textbooks, as illustrated above regarding text reception, need to be activated and converted into writing skills. Perhaps the following instruction is the most important in the Grade 7 English Paper 2 examination: "Write all sentences in good grammar and punctuate them correctly". In the 'O' Level examination, a related instruction reads: "Mistakes in spelling, punctuation and grammar may be penalised in any part of the paper". Dictionaries may play an important role regarding all these tasks.

Besides these text production tasks, which are based on comprehension passages, intermediate learners have to carry out text production tasks in the form of composition writing. As lower-intermediate learners, Grade 7 learners have to write compositions of between 80 and 120 words. At 'O' Level, candidates have to write two compositions in the English examination, the first being a free composition while the second is guided. The free composition should be between 350 and 450 words. According to the 'O' Level syllabus, the learners should consider the following, among other points:

- Write in a style and register appropriate to the subject matter, displaying a range of vocabulary and idiom appropriate to that subject matter
- Write with grammatical accuracy, spell accurately and punctuate their work correctly

The foregoing illustrates instances of text reception and text production tasks in English that are expected of intermediate learners in the context of the study of English as a school subject. Dictionaries ought to play a role in supporting the learners in those situations.

Since the discussion has thus far been mainly based on an analysis of past English examination papers, too much emphasis has been placed on written text reception and written text production. This does not imply that oral text reception and oral text production are less important. They are equally important, having been identified in the list which resulted from breaking down the two communicative situations. In fact, the 'O' Level English syllabus contains a section entitled 'Oral communication', consisting of both listening (oral text reception) and speaking (oral text production). Not all the elements of oral communication are practically tested in the examinations. However, a lexicographical intervention regarding English should not exclude problems and needs of intermediate learners arising in their oral communicative situations since such skills will be required in the future professional and social lives of the learners.

The general communicative skills acquired in the context of learning English as a school subject will go a long way in equipping learners for the communicative situations of learning subjects such as Mathematics, Science, Geography, etc, when it comes to the role of English as a medium in the context of the learning of all the

school subjects other than the indigenous languages from Grade 4. The only difference will be that the texts that characterise these subjects will display a certain degree of specialisation. The texts cover new and more topics in each subject as learners proceed from one grade to another. In essence, what will happen is the expanding scope and increasing depth of knowledge. While we may not characterise the texts as highly specialised, they may be regarded as semi-specialised, depending on the level of studies in each subject. This means that in addition to general English, the texts will include specialised terms and registers. As far as the communicative situations in the context of learning the school subjects through the English medium are concerned, the dimension of specialised language becomes an important addition to the communicative situations of English for intermediate learners. In this regard, Gouws (2010: 58) proposes the characterisation of pedagogical LSP dictionary users that may result in the Zimbabwean English intermediate learners in the context of the school system being characterised as lay intermediate learners, while their teachers would be semi-expert advanced learners.

In concluding this section, it may be noted that the section has further motivated the user typology established in 4.1.2 by locating the identified users in concrete cognitive and communicative situations in the context of English as a school subject and also as a medium of teaching various school subjects from Grade 4. Drawing closely from the English syllabus and past examination question papers, it has shown not only that the situations of intermediate learners are more complex than those of beginners, but also that the degree of complexity increases within the intermediate phase. All this bears tremendous implications for the challenges encountered by the learners in their various situations and the kinds of lexicographical assistance that may be required.

6.2 Identifying the needs of intermediate English learners

It is clear from the preceding section that intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe have additional primary needs over those of beginners. These needs result from the increased role of English in the curriculum (the teaching of other subjects) and the systematically increasing breadth and depth in the study of English as a subject. Thus,

although the situations are typically the same as those of beginners, the resultant situations of intermediate learners are more complex and more demanding as far as English is concerned. Secondly, their secondary needs are likewise different from those of beginners. In communities which have an established dictionary culture, it may be argued that intermediate learners of a language may have used dictionaries for beginners and therefore possess considerable dictionary skills. This is not the case in Zimbabwe where the majority of intermediate learners, just like beginners, are not familiar with dictionaries. However, here there has to be the consideration that intermediate learners are already literate and familiar with the alphabet, for instance, which may make their introduction to dictionaries a lot easier compared to beginners, although the efforts to meet their primary needs would imply a bit more complex dictionary structures (see 6.9.1). Finally, both the primary and secondary needs of intermediate learners will vary depending on whether they are lower-intermediate, middle-intermediate or upper-intermediate learners. Accordingly, this section attempts to identify, from the way English is taught as a subject and used as a medium of communication between Grade 4 and Form 4 in Zimbabwe, the most important lexicographically-relevant needs of intermediate English learners. As in the case of the analysis of users and their situations undertaken in the previous sections, the lexicographical function theory, and the theory of learners' lexicography in particular, is used. The lexicographical needs are presented separately, beginning with cognitive needs in 6.2.1 and then discussing communicative needs in 6.2.2.

6.2.1 Cognitive needs

We may begin this subsection with a summary of cognitive needs in additional language learning in general as presented by Tarp (2008). Then we shall proceed to show how those needs arise in the situations of the study and use of English by intermediate learners in Zimbabwe. The cognitive function-related information needs related to learning a second language may be summarised in the form of the following diagram.

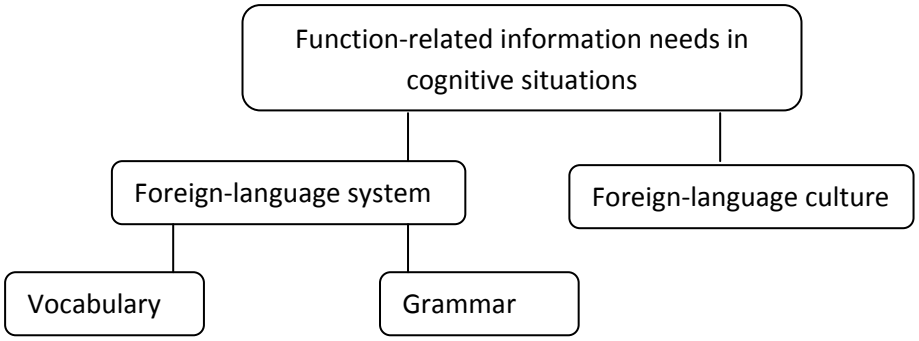


Figure 10: A diagrammatic summary of Tarp's (2008: 163-166) function-related cognitive information needs in foreign language learning

The above diagram is derived from the following statement:

> In connection with learning a foreign language, there are two relevant main areas in which dictionaries can help satisfy cognitive needs: The foreign language system (which can be sub-divided into vocabulary and grammar), and the foreign language culture (Tarp 2008: 164).

The relevant cognitive needs for intermediate learners of English in Zimbabwe emanate from the two main cognitive situations identified in 6.1.1, namely the learning of English as a school subject and the use of the language in teaching various school subjects. It is thus important to identify the relevant needs in the respective situations in which they arise.

It is primarily the learning of English as a school subject in Zimbabwe from beginner level upwards that gives rise to the cognitive needs summarised in the diagram above. These needs are in the form of a systematic acquisition of the English vocabulary and assimilation of its grammar. Having acquired the basic vocabulary as beginners, the intermediate learners from Grade 4 need to learn new words until they become advanced learners. Because this dissertation does not focus on additional language acquisition per se, we shall not dwell so much on the estimated numbers of words that will have to be learnt at each phase. All the English syllabi studied seem to ignore this issue, rather placing emphasis on the type of vocabulary that needs to be learnt at each phase or grade. However, when the time has come for the dictionaries to be compiled, lexicographers certainly need to pay attention to both additional language theories and actual practices in the Zimbabwean context to come up with appropriate figures, which when considered in view of lemma selection theories, will result in the resultant dictionaries providing optimum vocabulary support for the learners.

Once empirical research, together with theories of additional language vocabulary acquisition and theories of lemma selection from a lexicographical point of view, has established the estimated number and types of lemmata that have to be included in the dictionaries, the next issue to consider would be the relevant vocabulary aspects that need to be covered to satisfy the relevant cognitive needs. Tarp (2008: 164) divides these aspects into word form and word content. As far as the former is concerned, Tarp (2008: 164) explains in brackets that this pertains to "what words … the language contain[s]". Unfortunately this explanation is vague as far as information needs are concerned. It does not really say what aspects of the vocabulary of a language are needed by users under the word-form banner. By implication, the knowledge about the words contained by a particular language as constituting word form certainly pertains to spelling and pronunciation. The danger of not specifying these lies therein in that when it comes to specific users in specific situations not both aspects of word form may be relevant at the same time. Thus, the question in this regard would be whether all the learners at various stages need these kinds of information in cognitive purposes. We need to bear in mind that "the purpose of the foreign-language learning process is not foreign-language knowledge but foreign-language skills" (Tarp 2008: 163), the former being important in as far as it can be turned into the latter. Some learners may need to acquire the vocabulary so that they may gain oral communicative skills, of which only pronunciation will be necessary. In the case of intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe, both spelling and pronunciation information of all the words that are suitable for their level will be necessary. This will enable them to identify the words in oral or graphic forms. Lexicographers will need to determine how the data from which these information types, particularly pronunciation, may be presented to make it easily accessible and retrievable.

Another cognitive need for intermediate learners of English in Zimbabwe would be meaning information, which is at the core of vocabulary studies. As part of vocabulary learning, Tarp (2008: 164) refers to meaning as "word content", which pertains to "individual words and their relations to other words". Once the learners know words and their meanings, they would certainly have made great strides in additional language learning. It is, therefore, of utmost importance that dictionaries

that meet these cognitive needs are incorporated to take Zimbabweans through the intermediate phase of learning English as an additional language. Meaning information was identified in Subsection 4.2.1 as the most important reason for dictionary consultation among the Zimbabwean advanced learners of English and the need would be greater for intermediate learners. However, since dictionaries provide meaning information in various ways, the relevant and most suitable data categories need to be discussed with regard to the characteristics of the specific users.

Grammatical information needs also apply in the cognitive situation of learning English as a school subject in Zimbabwe at the intermediate level. Learners need knowledge about both the general and the specific sides of the language's grammatical system. Tarp (2008: 165) elucidates that this should cover "both the general rules and the grammatical properties of individual words", which, depending on a particular language would include aspects such as "inflection, word formation and syntax" (cf. McCorduck 1993). It is important here to note that the needs for grammar also apply to English beginners and even advanced learners in Zimbabwe, with the level of language learning having a definite influence on the extent of these needs. For example, while it may be necessary for beginners to be given guidance regarding the regular inflection of nouns using the –s suffix for plural, this information may not be required by lower-intermediate learners who would rather need guidance with irregular inflection.

The final cognitive need in the context of studying English as a subject for intermediate learners is cultural knowledge. Tarp (2008: 165) makes a point that learning a foreign language does not depend on learning all aspects of the foreign culture concerned at the same time. This point is particularly important in the context of the present research. Firstly, English is learnt as an additional language (not necessarily foreign) and also within Zimbabwe and primarily for use within the country, although English competence has enabled Zimbabweans to survive in many parts of the world during Zimbabwe's political and economic hardships. Secondly, while the English that is taught and used in Zimbabwe is mainly based on British English due to the country's colonial history, it has also been influenced by Zimbabwean culture which has also impacted on the vocabulary that constitutes the language studied at schools and used in various spheres of life, particularly the media.

In this connection, the 'O' Level English syllabus states that:

> It is also intended that language learning should incorporate Zimbabwean and similar social, economic, political, scientific and technological experiences and reflect national needs in these areas.

From that perspective, there is a need resulting from the cultural activities and native languages of Zimbabwe which intermediate learners would have brought with to school where English enjoys more prominence, particularly at the intermediate level. Furthermore, the language has also been affected by cultures from other English-speaking countries such as America and South Africa, the influences of which have not spared Zimbabwe. In this regard, intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe should be aware of the social-cultural and pragmatic dynamics of English so that they may be able to use it correctly in various contexts. Given the fact that the intermediate learning phase is the longest, it is important that dictionaries meant for the learners at this stage take into consideration the relevant ways of addressing the cognitive needs of cultural significance.

In the foregoing, the focus has been on the cognitive needs of Zimbabwean intermediate learners within the context of the study of English as a school subject. The needs may be reduced into vocabulary and grammatical needs that constitute the language as a system whose knowledge may be acquired. As far as vocabulary is concerned, it may be assumed that the focus has been on general vocabulary, although the study of English as a school subject will result in learners acquiring some vocabulary items assigned with specialised designations in some disciplines. However, it is not guaranteed that all the needs of Zimbabwean learners regarding various LSPs will be covered as part of the study of English as a school subject. Some of the terms will be learnt within the study of various school subjects. For Zimbabweans this becomes an important need at the intermediate level when English takes over as the sole official language of teaching and learning from Grade 4. Nevertheless, most of what has been said with regard to general language vocabulary will apply to special language vocabulary, except that the indication of meaning has to satisfy the need in the context of particular subjects.

6.2.2 Communicative needs

Should dictionaries play a central role in the acquisition of knowledge about English in Zimbabwe, this would partly be a direct result of the satisfaction of the cognitive needs identified in the previous subsection. Yet the attainment of functional communicative skills is the main purpose for learning this language. This is articulated in the approach of the 'O' Level English syllabus as follows:

> This syllabus is intended to provide pupils with the communicative skills necessary for the different roles and situations in which they are likely to find themselves after leaving school. It is hoped to make the learning of the English language more functional and purposeful by drawing language structures and examples from, and relating them to, such roles and situations.

The communicative objective is confirmed by Mlambo (2002) whose research involved observing English Grade 4 classes in selected Zimbabwean primary schools. This concurs with Tarp's assertion (2008: 163) that the objective of language learning is the attainment of communicative skills. Therefore, to provide a full lexicographical support to English learning in Zimbabwe, dictionaries should also satisfy the communicative needs. Satisfying these needs at the intermediate level may never be overemphasised, given that this would provide a solid platform for the production of advanced learners.

The communicative needs for intermediate English learners are presented in Table 4 below. The table is a combination of two tables through which Tarp (2008) summarises lexicographical needs for direct text reception and text production in a foreign language. Chapter Five shows that since communicative needs are related to how learners at certain stages (beginners, intermediate and advanced) of the learning process receive and produce texts (Tarp 2008: 148, 150), beginners will require bilingual solutions as they may be forced to resort to the mother tongue to solve both foreign-language reception and production problems (see Section 5.6). It is important to state here that depending on various factors, some intermediate learners, particularly the lower-intermediate learners of English, will also require the bilingual solutions for reasons similar to those of beginners. Thus, although excluded in Table 4, data categories which constitute the bilingual solutions are not forgotten.

Lexicographical Need: Information about	**Reception**		**Production**	
	Function	**Usage**	**Function**	**Usage**
Lemmata		√		√
Orthography	√	√	√	√
Orthographical variants as lemmata		√		√
Orthographical mistakes as lemmata		√		√
Irregular inflection forms as lemmata	√	√		
Compound forms as lemmata		√		
Word class		√	√	√
Genus		√	√	√
Meaning of lemmata	√			√
Idioms	√		√	
Meaning of idioms	√			√
Proverbs	√		√	
Meaning of proverbs	√			√
Pragmatic and cultural restrictions	√		√	
Word formation			√	
Syntactic properties			√	
Collocations			√	
Synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms etc.			√	

Table 4: Function- and usage-related communicative needs in an additional language

Tarp (2008) discusses text reception and text production needs separately, also distinguishing between function-related and usage-related needs. He subsequently explains in detail how each type of information listed in the table supports a specific

function. However, all those needs are summarised and clearly marked in Table 4, regardless of whether they arise in reception or production situations and whether they are function-related or usage-related. The main reason for doing this is the fact that some information types are needed for different functions. Orthographical information, for example, arises as a need either in reception or production situations, and, depending on the situation, either as a function-related or usage-related need, as can be seen in Table 4. The other reason is that certain information needs may be retrieved from one type of lexicographical data. For example, information needs on orthography, orthographical variants, orthographical mistakes, compound forms, idioms and proverbs may all be satisfied by lemmata, depending on a dictionary's lemmatisation policies. Summarising all the communicative needs in Table 4, therefore, permits a focus on lexicographical data, e.g. lemmata, in order to show how the inclusion of certain data in a dictionary satisfies various function-related and usage-related needs in both reception and production situations. This avoids unnecessary repetition.

Before proceeding to the next section, a clear statement would be appropriate regarding the applicability of each communicative need specifically to Zimbabwean intermediate learners learning and using English. By the way, the presentations in Table 4 are derived from Tarp (2008) who establishes the needs in a general way without focusing on a specific language. The realisation of certain needs may be language specific, and, more importantly, dependent on the target users of a specific dictionary. Accordingly, an effort was made to contextualise the cognitive needs in the study of English as a school subject and the use of the language as a medium of instruction in 6.2.1. Looking at the number and types of communicative information needs, as well as their functions either in reception or production, and the fact that others are usage-related, the task may be a bit more cumbersome as it will require an independent and close study of English as a language, which is somewhat outside the scope of this study. However, the relevant aspects of English may be covered more conveniently in the next section which discusses the data categories from which the information needs of Zimbabwean intermediate learners listed in Table 4 may be retrieved. It suffices though, looking at Table 4, to note that the information needs may conveniently be reduced to vocabulary, grammatical and cultural or pragmatic

information. Thus, there is an overlap between cognitive needs and the communicative needs presented in 6.2.1. The discussion of selected lexicographical data in English dictionaries in the next section intends to show the extent to which English lexicography may satisfy the lexicographical needs of intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe.

6.3 Considering some existing dictionaries

While intermediate English learners, just like the rest of the learners in Zimbabwe, are exposed to a very limited range of dictionaries that may support their acquisition and use of the language, English remains the language possessing with plenty dictionaries of different types (Landau 1989). Metalexicography may indicate that not all of the existing English dictionaries are appropriate, particularly for additional language learners (cf. Tarp 2008: 151) such as Zimbabweans. Nevertheless, it would be much better if the learners had that variety at their disposal.

This section is a survey of selected dictionaries. Then, in the next sections, focus will be on their provision of certain lexicographical data in view of the intermediate learners' lexicographical needs regarding English. Attention will also be afforded to the presentation of data by means of dictionary structures. Some of the children's dictionaries and primary school dictionaries which were discussed in Chapter Five are included. Certain features of those dictionaries are relevant for beginners, while others still make them suitable for more experienced learners.

Although the selected dictionaries were not specifically compiled for Zimbabwean intermediate English learners, they were compiled for users who share certain characteristics with the Zimbabwean potential users. This mainly pertains to age, e.g. the OCD which targets children of at least 8 years of age, or level of education, e.g. the OPD and the *Oxford Popular School Dictionary* (OPSD) which are targeted at school students whose level of education corresponds to that of some of the Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. However, these dictionaries were clearly compiled for native-English speaking learners, particularly in the UK, despite the fact that they are also sold in countries where English is not a native language. There are

also other dictionaries which are also purportedly targeted at the potential users discussed in this chapter. Good cases in point are the LPD and *Longman Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary* (LFISD). The blurb of the former states that the dictionary "has been specifically written for primary school students in Africa". The latter is also called the *Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa*. Some of the students in Africa targeted by the LPD *would* include Zimbabwean students between Grades 4 and 7. Those are the lower-intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe who also fit the bill of "senior primary school pupils" targeted by the LFISD, in which it is explained that the target users "do not speak English as their first language", but "have English as a subject or as the language of learning" (p.3) at school. Finally, just like the dictionaries cited above, dictionaries such as the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* (SAOSD) and the *South African Oxford Secondary School Dictionary* (SAOSSD) will also be considered despite their clear indication that they are targeted at South African learners. Their focus on South African learners may inform the lexicographical intervention towards English acquisition and use by Zimbabwean learners.

From the foregoing, it is clear that dictionaries are already available in abundance for users corresponding to Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. In fact, some of them implicitly claim to have considered Zimbabweans as target users. It is through an analysis of their data categories in the next sections that their appropriateness and user-friendliness with regard to Zimbabweans may be evaluated.

6.4 Considering lemma selection

According to Tarp (2008: 174), as part of the lexicographical function theory, a theory on lemma selection should address the following questions:

- How big should the lemma stock in learners' dictionaries be?
- Which criteria and principles should guide lemma selection?
- Which empirical foundation should lemma selection be based on?

Tarp then goes on to cite Bergenholtz (1994) who presents the following as major sources of guidance:

- Introspection
- Available descriptions such as dictionaries, textbooks and academic publications
- Texts in the form of collections of evidence or corpora (Tarp 2008: 174).

This section primarily seeks to determine whether, depending on their lemma selection policies, the studied dictionaries are suitable for Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. Secondly, it seeks to decipher some guidelines on lemma selection that may result in dictionaries that satisfy certain lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean intermediate learners that are not satisfied by existing English dictionaries. Thirdly, it considers other lexicographical strategies that have been adopted in the selected dictionaries to complement their lemma stock in order to contribute towards their genuine purposes.

For the purposes of language learning, lemma selection procedures would determine the effectiveness of dictionaries as far as the learning of vocabulary is concerned. "Dictionaries are still used as relevant reference works in situations in which learners either systematically or sporadically try to acquire a foreign language's vocabulary" (Tarp 2008: 195). Zimbabwean learners need to learn English vocabulary systematically as part of learning English as a subject. Sporadically, they also need to learn the LSPs of other school subjects. However, lemma selection procedures will also determine the satisfaction of the communication needs. The availability and accessibility of several data types that are relevant for reception and production purposes either as function- or usage-related needs are partly dependent on lemma selection policies. It is important to keep in mind these lexicographical functions related to the learning of English and its use as a language of learning and teaching at the intermediate level when steering the discussion towards the issues of the size of the lemma stock, principles of lemma selection and sources of the lemmata.

Regarding size, lemma figures are given as indicators of the size of the lemma stock of dictionaries. This is particularly true for learners' dictionaries. Learners' dictionaries generally deal with subsets of the vocabulary of a language, usually relative to the language learning level of the target users, while general dictionaries normally attempt a full coverage of a language's lexical stock. Displaying features of

learners' dictionaries, children's dictionaries and school dictionaries always contain a limited selection of words from a language. Accordingly, lexicographers and publishers deem it fit to supply the number of lemmata in their dictionaries, as illustrated by some of the studied dictionaries in Table 5 below.

Dictionary title	Language learning level	Total lemmata
OJD	< Lower-intermediate	10 000
LFISD	Lower-intermediate	3 500
LPD	< Lower-intermediate	8 000
LNJED	Lower-intermediate	12 000
LBED	Lower-intermediate	12 000
SAOSSD	Upper-intermediate	45 000

Table 5: Size of lemma stock in dictionaries vis-à-vis level of language learning

It is reasonable to expect the number of lemmata supplied by lexicographers and publishers to be suitable for the target users in terms of their language learning level. The language learning levels of the target users have, therefore, been indicated in the above table, based on either the information supplied in the dictionary or the present writer's analysis.

Chapter Five established that the number of lemmata in some children's and school dictionaries are inflated (5.5.3.1). Judging from the thickness of their spines, their font sizes and number of lemmata per page, the dictionaries studied in this chapter are clearly bigger than those studied in Chapter Five, of course bearing in mind that others are being revisited. No attempt was made to verify the supplied lemma figures as was done in Chapter Five, but literature generally indicates that inflating lemma figures is a commercially-motivated trend in lexicographical practice (cf. Landau 2001). What is worth stating is that the size of the lemma stock and the levels of language learning do not always seem to correlate in a sensible way, especially when other supplied data are considered. For example, the LNJED may be attractive to lower-intermediate learners (identified as the primary target user-group on the blurb)

who will be excited by the prospect of getting assistance with learning as many as 12 000 words, but the use of International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbols to indicate pronunciation is definitely counter-productive. It should be noted, though, that the general public is also identified as the target market for the dictionary. Perhaps the pronunciation data is targeted at them, but still that makes matters worse because the general public may not be expected to possess the competence of decoding the IPA symbols. From this, it may be noted that the lemma figures given in dictionaries, correctly or incorrectly, sometimes have little to do with the level of the language learners and the functions for which the dictionaries are compiled.

In the light of the foregoing, the possible compilation of dictionaries, as part of a lexicographical intervention in the learning of English as an additional language in Zimbabwe, should not be so much constrained by the tradition of a numbers game whose functional motivations are problematic. Instead, the focus should be more on the dictionary basis and its relevance to the potential user. Some of the dictionaries surveyed in this chapter do not only provide lemma figures. They also make an effort to justify the lemma sources and their authenticity. For example, the chief editor of the OCD writes in the dictionary preface:

> … I have made extensive use of the British National Corpus, a language database containing 100 million words of written and spoken English of all kinds assembled by a consortium of publishers and academic institutions (Allen 2003: iii).

What is justified here is the authority of the corpus, most probably owing to its size and representativeness, as the dictionary basis for a children's dictionary. Ever since the COBUILD Project (Sinclair 1987), lexicography has immensely benefited from corpus linguistics, with lemma selection being one of the activities that heavily rely on corpora. The OUP Southern Africa, which has published several school dictionaries in South Africa has developed 'special' corpora on which South African Oxford dictionaries are based. However, although it is claimed that the OUP Southern Africa represents the entirety of the region, there is no doubt that South African English is the main object of lexicographical treatment and that South Africa is the primary market. If this was not the case, the word *sadza*, a Shona adoptive referring to thick mealie-meal porridge, would have made it into the OSASD (3rd Edition) or other recent OUP Southern African dictionaries alongside *pap*. As a staple dish, *sadza* is

referred to in many Zimbabwean literary works, and corpus-based English dictionaries for Southern Africa would not fail to capture it if the literary works and English textbooks from Zimbabwe were included in the corpora on which the dictionaries are based. Yet for our purposes, it may be debatable whether Zimbabwean learners of English would need guidance regarding this word. However, since the word is adopted from one of over 15 Zimbabwean languages (cf. Ndhlovu 2009), *sadza* is a truly English word for some beginners who encounter it for the first time at school. The point here is that for Zimbabwean English learners, it would be more helpful if dictionaries were available which include some words that have been adopted from some indigenous languages. A corpus would be required in this regard and the one described by Louw and Jordan (1993) may be a suitable point of departure. "The corpus contains two sets of secondary school English textbooks" and "provides a readily accessible source of lexical items encountered in Zimbabwean secondary schools" (Louw and Jordan 1993: 131). Such a corpus would be worthy of consideration as part of a dictionary basis for middle- and upper-intermediate learners of English in Zimbabwe.

Although a corpus may provide a useful dictionary basis, it does not address all lemma selection challenges. A clear lemma selection policy which is lexicographically motivated is still required to ensure that the lemmatised items, either from corpora or other sources, are of functional value to the target users. For example, having justified the British National Language Corpus as the dictionary basis for the OCD, the editor offers no explanation as to why 20 000 words were selected from this corpus for this particular dictionary. Neither is it explained how words such as *paraphernalia* and *paraplegic* may be suitable for 8 year olds. Despite the fact that the dictionary is being sold worldwide, the lexicographers may still be given the benefit of doubt as they indicate that the dictionary was tested in schools, undoubtedly British schools, and that 8 years is only a minimum age of the target users. However, the fact that only the minimum age is given, leaving the target user-group wide open, is in itself problematic. Is the dictionary also targeted at 17 year olds who are at the end of their secondary school? Clearly, central to lemma selection policies should be an unambiguous identification of the potential user and the functions for which the dictionary is to be used in cognitive and communicative situations. On that account it

may also be left open for debate whether the word *sadza* would be relevant in a Zimbabwean school dictionary meant for intermediate learners, assuming that they would have learnt it earlier. Thus, in addition to having a corpus that is developed according to lexicographically relevant criteria, other lemma selection criteria may still be needed to allow for the inclusion of other words which may not be frequent or even available in the corpus. The OSASD (3rd Edition) provides a recommendable example in this regard. It is stated:

> To ensure that we included the words learners need to study and communicate effectively, we used a corpus (or database) made up of a range of approved textbooks for all subjects from Grade 4 to 9.
>
> … we analysed the database and identified important words to include, from words that are the foundations of much other learning … to more advanced curriculum terms …
>
> We also used the database to identify South African words that are useful for school, or are a normal part of South African vocabulary …
>
> We paid special attention to almost 100 exam and test instruction words … because we know that if learners don't understand these terms, they will struggle to succeed at school (Reynolds et al 2010: iv).

From the quoted outlines, it is clear that not every word in the dictionary is accounted for by its frequency or occurrence in the corpus. The editors knew the target users and made lemma selection decisions based on the identified user needs. Furthermore, the corpus also seems to be a specialised one, clearly compiled according to a set of criteria which consider the fact that it will be used for a school dictionary targeted at learners falling within clearly defined educational levels. The *Macmillan School Dictionary* (MSD), which follows a similar procedure, calls such a corpus a "curriculum corpus" (Rundell 2008: vi).

Looking beyond a corpus as a dictionary basis may result in the achievement of lexicographical functions which would otherwise be compromised if a corpus and its attendant frequency criterion was the sole basis for inclusion. For example, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, etc. should be included even if they do not appear in a corpus to ensure that the dictionary facilitates vocabulary learning. The lexicographical treatment of words which will find themselves in the dictionary by virtue of being semantically related to those that appear in the corpus will facilitate both text production and text reception. Although most of the dictionaries studied in this

section emphasise their reliance on corpora for lemma selection, the impressive ways in which semantic relations are captured suggest that a lexicographically qualified intuitive judgment plays an important role in children and school dictionaries.

For dictionaries meant to support Zimbabwean intermediate English learners with text reception and text production, the lemmatisation policies should consider variation with respect to British and American English. Of particular importance here would be orthographical and lexical variation. Traditionally, British English provides the standard for English usage in Zimbabwe. However, English learners have always encountered American texts for comprehension. The American influence on English as an international language has been too strong to ignore. As a consequence, there has been a recent shift in the way the teaching of English in Zimbabwe approaches British and American English. On the level of orthography, learners were previously marked wrong for spelling words such as *labor* or *organization*, with the British forms *labour* and *organisation* being prescribed. Now they are free to use either British spelling or American spelling, provided the learners stick to one system within a text. The consequence is that an English dictionary which exclusively treats British forms would fail Zimbabweans when they encounter non-British forms in texts and look them up in the dictionary. This means that competing orthographical forms of words from both systems have to be lemmatised to satisfy the needs of Zimbabwean target users. For space economy, British forms may assume precedence and more comprehensive lexicographical treatment while articles corresponding to American forms become economic and use cross-referencing to guide learners to more comprehensive articles of the corresponding British forms. Variation on the lexical level also needs to be considered. For instance, Zimbabweans know *football* and *soccer* to be synonymous, as it is the case in Britain. In text reception, some learners may get confused when reading about a *football* match in a book or comprehension passage written in America. Consulting a dictionary such as the MSD would not clear the confusion since, despite lemmatising both forms, the dictionary does not consider the American or Canadian game but only the one that involves two teams of eleven players trying to score by kicking the ball into the goal of the opponents.

Particular attention will also be required regarding special cases of irregular inflection. One important topic in English studies, at both primary and secondary school levels in Zimbabwe, is that of 'common errors'. In as much as dictionaries are meant to provide guidance on language usage, this cannot only be done by excluding common errors from their macrostructure, whether they are of a morphological or spelling nature. Common errors in English by Zimbabweans would also need lexicographical treatment. A good example in this case would be negating inflection of *regard* which results in a form which ranks high among the most common errors in Zimbabwe, i.e. *irregardless*. The error is so common that many do not recognise it as such. Lemmatising such a form would be useful for production, provided a warning is given that it is a common error before guiding the learner to *regardless*, which is the correct form. The mere lemmatisation of such problematic vocabulary items without qualified comments would be insufficient. Consider the lexical and semantic relations between words such as *valuable* and *invaluable* or *price* and *priceless*. For additional language learners who have just mastered it that *in-* and *–less* are respectively a negating prefix and suffix, *invaluable* and *priceless* may be mistaken to mean that something is not important. Despite including these words, the MSD is found deficient because it does not establish clear relations between these related words through explanations of meaning or cross-referencing.

Another important aspect of lemmata that requires attention in modern lexicography is whether the lemma stock of a dictionary constitutes items other than orthographic words. Gouws (1991) identifies the word-bias tradition as one major limitation of many dictionaries, thereby proposing a lexicon-based approach which supports users beyond the meaning and use of full and individual lexical items. This implies that besides orthographic words, dictionaries should include both sublexical lexical items and multiword lexical items as lemmata. The consideration of both sublexical and multiword lexical items as lemma candidates can also be motivated on the basis of dictionary functions. However, these vocabulary elements may also be included as sublemmata or be treated in outer texts.

Sublexical lexical items include prefixes, infixes and suffixes. These are productive elements of a language which have both grammatical and semantic value. Their productive nature may be such that it may be difficult to treat as lemmata all the

words generated through word-formation processes of affixation in a dictionary. In such cases, and also depending on the potential dictionary user, it may be wise to lemmatise the affixes and then explain them in such a way that the user will understand them and be in a position to understand all the words formed by affixation processes in reception situations or even be able to use them as productively as possible. In Zimbabwe, such a strategy will be more appropriate for dictionaries intended for middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate English learners. Targeted at South African learners who fall between middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners, the SAOSSD (4th Edition)'s lemmatisation of *semi-* is a good example. Having learnt that *semi-* means half or partial, the learners will easily understand the meaning of words in the subsequent article stretch up to *semitone*, most of which refer to half or part of something. However, it may be noted that within that same article stretch, the words corresponding to *seminal*, *seminar*, *seminary* and *Semite* clearly have nothing to do with *semi-* as half or part of something. To avoid such imminent confusion, for lower-intermediate learners it may be helpful to lemmatise the most frequent words in which the affixes are used as full forms. This strategy is adopted in the OCD where only four words, namely *semicircle*, *semicolon*, *semi-detached* and *semi-final* which have *semi-* in the sense of half or part as their prefix are lemmatised while the prefix *semi-* itself is not. Besides lemmatising them, affixes may be listed in the outer texts of dictionaries, where they may also be illustrated by means of examples (see 6.9.2).

The consideration of multiword lexical items for treatment in dictionaries addresses the needs related to phrases and fixed expressions (Alexander 1984). Humblé (2001: 60) distinguishes fixed expressions from idioms. However, from a lexicographical point of view, the problems and needs related to multi-word lexical items, including proverbs, are similar. As shown in Table 4, idioms and proverbs are function-related needs for both reception and production. Their meanings are a function-related reception need and usage-related production need. The main challenge that these multiword lexical items pose to the language learner is that their meanings may not easily be deduced from their discrete constituents all the time (Seidl and McMordie 1978: 4, Humblé 2001: 59-60). For that reason, they deserve special treatment in lexicography, which, however, is not without challenges. Table 6 below captures the

lemmatic representation of fixed expressions involving the word *put* in five dictionaries which may be used by Zimbabwean intermediate English learners.

Dictionary	Number of –put– fixed expression	Level of language learning
OPD	7	Lower-intermediate learners
LPD	6	Lower-intermediate learners
OSASD	5	Middle-intermediate learners
SAOSSD	0	Upper-intermediate learners
LSASD	7	Upper-intermediate learners

Table 6: Lemmatic representation of fixed expressions with put in selected dictionaries

Like the other elements of the language's lexicon, fixed expressions present a challenge of selecting some over others for lexicographical treatment. For example, while not more than seven fixed expressions involving *put* are treated after the lemma *put* in each of the dictionaries represented in Table 6, sixty-five are treated in the OALD (7th Ed). An interesting observation though is that the OPD and LSASD treat the same fixed expressions. However, an examination of fixed expressions involving *take* in the two dictionaries shows that different expressions are lemmatised, suggesting that the case of *put* could be a case of coincidence. All this illustrates the challenge of selection when it comes to fixed expressions. Comprehensive general dictionaries, advanced learners' dictionaries such as the OALD and specialised dictionaries dealing with phraseology, idioms and proverbs have more capacity to deal with this problem. Relevant examples of the latter include the *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English* (Vols. 1 and 2), *Dictionary of English Phrasal Verbs and Their Idioms*, *A Dictionary of Catch Phrases*, *English Proverbs Explained*, *English Prepositional Idioms*, etc. However, noting the importance of fixed expressions in foreign language learning (Seidl and McMordie 1978: 4), especially for intermediate learners (McArthur and Atkins 1983: 6), lexicographers need to recognise them as candidates for treatment in school dictionaries for English additional language learners. That the SAOSSD records no lemmatic treatment for

fixed expressions involving *put* in Table 6 is really shocking, given that the OPD recorded seven. However, it does not tell the whole story. The real issue is a lack of policy regarding fixed expressions because a spot check on *take* in the SAOSSD shows that at least nine fixed expressions are lemmatised.

It is important to acknowledge another problem regarding the treatment of fixed expressions in dictionaries, i.e. their location. In most cases, phrasal verbs tend to be lemmatised immediately after the verb lemma. This is exactly what Table 5 captures. However, *take place* in the LSASD and OALD (7th Ed.) is lemmatised after *place* instead of *take* where most of the expressions involving *take* are listed. The case of *put all your eggs in one basket* in the OALD (7th Ed.) which is treated under *egg* rather than under *put* where sixty-five fixed expressions involving this verb are found is another useful example. A closer look at these cases indicates that there is a policy that is being followed whereby idioms, including those that are phrasal verbs, are lemmatised according to the first noun in the fixed expression. It is plausible that lexicographers have come up with a policy which addresses this problem. However, the problem is that users are not always aware of such well-thought lexicographical policies. In the LSASD, no guidance is given to the user in this respect. While the OALD (7th Ed.) bears in mind that the user may need guidance regarding this policy, that guidance is provided nowhere in the various front matter subtexts that are meant to guide dictionary use. Rather, the user will have to go through more than a page of a partial article stretch of sublemmata attached to the article of the main lemma *take*, to be informed that most idioms containing *take* are at the entries for the nouns and adjectives in the idioms (p.1507). It is, thus, not enough for lexicographers to have such good policies in handling tricky data categories. The policies also need to be explained clearly so that the users can get directions in their access routes.

The presentation of lemma candidates and the relevant guidance is not any less important as far as single-word lemmata are concerned. Here one may consider the issue of the alphabetical arrangement of lemmata which is now synonymous with dictionaries. This issue has been comprehensively discussed by Tom McArthur in a paper entitled “Thematic Lexicography” (McArthur 1986a). McArthur demonstrates the advantages that a thematic arrangement of vocabulary may support language learning and text production, an idea which he implemented through the *Longman*

Lexicon of Contemporary English. Also worthy of mention in this regard is the *Longman Language Activator* and the *Oxford Word Power*. Notwithstanding the challenges observed by Tomioka (1996) regarding the *Longman Language Activator*, these works employ strategies which support vocabulary acquisition and text production in a way that purely alphabetical dictionaries do not. The works represent lexicographical hybrids, whereby a thematic arrangement is used together with the alphabetical arrangement to give the best of both worlds.

As far as lemma selection and related issues pertain to lexicographical treatment of a language's lexicon, there are lots of positives and negatives that a lexicographical intervention towards the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe may draw from existing children and school dictionaries compiled for British and South African learners. Very thoughtful decisions have to be made, especially for those dictionaries that will be targeted at intermediate learners. Not everything should be done as a matter of tradition by basing new dictionaries on their predecessors. Even given the use of corpora which is consistent with modern lexicographical practice, lemma selection should be guided by a lexicographically qualified judgment which pays special attention to the potential users and needs.

6.5 Considering paraphrases of meaning

Various types of lexicographical data are used to indicate meaning in dictionaries (Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas-Bano 2008, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005). This subsection focuses on the paraphrase of meaning (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 143) which is generally called the definition or lexicographical definition. Given the frequency of the need for meaning information and also that it is mainly through this type of data that meaning information is provided in dictionaries, there is already a lot of literature on the subject (e.g. Zgusta 1971, Landau 2001, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005, Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas-Bano 2008). This subsection will not add any views to the already discussed types of 'definitions' or defining principles in general. Instead, the topic is discussed here with a view to addressing the need for meaning information by Zimbabwean intermediate English learners, specifically addressing the following question: Are paraphrases of meaning in English suitable and sufficient for all

intermediate learners in Zimbabwe? In addressing this question, a connection is naturally made between lexicography, both theory and practice, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, meaning information as a need in the context of learning and using English by intermediate learners in Zimbabwe. The discussion may appeal to other communities in which dictionaries are used to support the acquisition and use of English as an additional language.

Meaning of lemmata is both a function-need for text reception and a usage-related need for text production (see Table 4 above). For the first part, the user needs dictionary assistance regarding meaning of a word that she/he encounters while reading or listening. It could be a new word. For this need to be satisfied, the word should be included and explained in the dictionary. For the second part, the user may know the word and its meaning but be uncertain about its other aspects that affect its use in production. Here the meaning of the word given in the dictionary will confirm if an appropriate word has been found. Thereafter, the learner may use the word or search for other relevant information types before putting it to productive use. Furthermore, as indicated in 6.2.1, meaning information is also integral in vocabulary learning, which is a cognitive situation.

The brief offered in the preceding paragraph is reflective of the universal centrality of meaning information in learners' lexicography. The lexicographical functions to which meaning information is attributed are not any less important for Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. There being no modern bilingual dictionaries that support language learning and use of English (see 1.2 and 4.4.2), meaning information is mainly retrieved from English paraphrases of meaning. Besides, at the intermediate level, particularly the middle- and upper-intermediate levels, learners need to get accustomed to monolingual solutions to some problems, although the bilingual solution in the form of translation equivalents may still be provided for meaning information. Given the problems that Zimbabweans experience in various situations of learning and using this language, it is, therefore, crucial that paraphrases of meaning in English dictionaries are given attention in this dissertation.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) discuss a number of criteria that enhance the quality of paraphrases of meaning in dictionaries. These are completeness, clarity, accuracy,

consistency, independency, objectivity and neutrality (cf. Lombard 1991). They stress that:

> These guidelines could be very useful to the lexicographer as measures and counter-measures to employ and to note in the compilation of lexicographic definitions (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 148).

There is no question about that. In fact, completeness, consistency and independency should be regarded as basic lexicographical practice in the sense that paraphrases of meaning which do not meet these criteria stand little or no chance of satisfying any user. However, clarity, accuracy, objectivity and neutrality may somewhat be problematic as they may be subject to the competence levels as well as the subjective prejudices of both the lexicographer and the user. What may be clear to one user may be vague or opaque to another user. However, there are certain practices which enhance maximum clarity in defining, e.g. avoiding using words that are more difficult than the lemma in its definition (Zgusta 1971). Children and school dictionaries, as well as learners' dictionaries, usually identify a 'defining vocabulary' to ensure that the language used in explaining lemmata is generally accessible to the target users. This is true of a number of dictionaries studied for this chapter, but despite this the paraphrases of meaning are not flawless. The defining vocabulary itself may not be perfect all the time. Given their linguistic background, Zimbabwean learners may find lack of clarity as a huge impediment to their vocabulary learning, optimum reception and appropriate text production. A comparative and qualitative analysis of the explanation of the word *arm* in selected English dictionaries is undertaken using the criteria identified above. The word *arm* is explained as follows in the quoted dictionaries:

> **arm** … 1 the part of your body between your shoulder and your hand 2 the sleeve of a coat or dress 3 something that works like an arm or sticks out like an arm
>
> **arm** 1 to give someone weapons 2 to prepare for war.
>
> (OCD)
>
> **arm** … 1 the part of your body between your shoulder and your hand 2 the sleeve of a coat or dress 3 the side part of a chair, on which you can rest your arm.

> **arm** 1 to arm people is to give them weapons 2 to arm is to prepare for war (OPD)
>
> **arm**
>
> the part of your body from your shoulder to your hand
>
> **arm** to give someone weapons
>
> (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
>
> **arm** 1 each of the two upper limbs of the human body from the shoulder to the hand. 2 a sleeve of a piece of clothing. 3 something shaped like an arm projecting from the main part of something … 4 each of the raised parts of a chair, supporting the arms of the person sitting in it.
>
> **arm** 1 to supply people with weapons. 2 to fit weapons to a vehicle or a piece of equipment. 3 to make a bomb ready to explode (SAOSSD).

It is important to recall that *arm* was used in Chapter Five to illustrate the defining practices for young and linguistically less competent users. The OVFD was found to be the dictionary that was produced for the least competent target users corresponding to Grade 1 pupils in Zimbabwe. This dictionary explained the meaning of the word by simply stating that "Your hand is at the end of your arm …". Although this explanation does not say what an arm is, which clearly violates the defining principle that a "definition must define but not just talk about the word" (Landau 2001: 162), it was found to be user-friendly and adequate for the target users of the dictionary. By comparing how the OVFD explains meaning differently from the dictionaries studied in this chapter, the analysis hopes to show how lexicographers attempt to satisfy the needs of intermediate learners which are somewhat more complex in terms of clarity and relevance. However, it also highlights the problems that emerge in the process, resulting in some paraphrases of meaning being less user-friendly.

A comparison of the explanation of *arm* in the OVFD and those presented above indicates a lexicographical awareness of the increasing needs associated with increasing levels of language learning. In the OVFD, only one meaning is explained and that is the primary sense of the noun *arm*. The same form, representing two homonyms, is explained in its occurrence as noun and verb in the other dictionaries. With the exception of the OSASD (3rd Ed.), which regrettably contains one

explanation each for the noun and verb forms, at least three senses of the noun *arm* and two for the verb are explained in the other dictionaries. This means that the users of these dictionaries are exposed to different senses of these homonyms.

However, that the dictionaries provide explanations for more than one sense of the same word-form does not guarantee the satisfaction of all the lexicographical needs of the target users. As indicated above, the explanations have to satisfy a number of criteria. Accordingly, the paraphrases of meaning of *arm* presented above are evaluated in terms of the criteria identified above particularly from the perspective of Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. Of course, it has already been indicated that Zimbabweans are not the primary target users of the studied dictionaries, despite the fact that some of the dictionaries were purportedly compiled to cover their needs and the fact that the dictionaries are among the available ones that Zimbabweans may access at the moment. Therefore, what may be identified as limitations of some of the paraphrases of meaning of the word in the cited dictionaries do not only apply with respect to Zimbabwean learners but generally additional language learners of English.

For native-English speakers, *arm* may be an easy word, but additional language learners like Zimbabweans may know the basic sense of the word in their native language during their first school years. Thus, the analysis here seeks to examine whether the supplied explanations can assist Zimbabweans with the learning of this word and its meanings, as well as text reception and text production involving this word. Regarding this, it is argued that while the explanations presented above may go a long way in assisting Zimbabwean intermediate English learners, some of them display problematic elements. Some of those elements could be avoided to attain more user-friendliness while others reflect on the challenging nature of writing paraphrases of meaning for specific target users of a dictionary.

For the basic sense of the noun *arm*, *body-part*, *shoulder* and *hand* may be identified as the core elements whose inclusion in the explanations is essential in assisting the user with the meaning of the word. However, the use of *limbs* in the SAOSSD may be an impediment bearing in mind that *arm* may be better known than *limb*. A counter-argument would be that a Grade 8 learner should know this basic sense of *arm*, but using a more difficult word defeats the entire lexicographical enterprise of explaining

word meanings, which should never take anything for granted. The user may then be forced to look up the meaning of *limb*, which would indicate that its use in the explanation of *arm* is somewhat irrelevant and renders the explanation unnecessarily dependent on that of *limb*. The same could be said regarding the use of *sleeve* in the other sense of the word in the OCD, OPD and SAOSSD. The OALD (7th Ed.) provides a more user-friendly explanation which clarifies that in this sense *arm* means "the part of a piece of clothing that covers the arm". Note here that this explanation is intended for more competent dictionary users, i.e. advanced learners. However, it becomes clear that dependency of the explanations of secondary meanings on those of primary meanings may not be totally avoided. This dependency makes the explanation of the noun *arm* in the sense of part of a chair complete and clear.

As far as the explanation of the meaning of *arm* in its occurrence as the homonym used as a verb is concerned, *giving weapons* appears as the core element of the first sense that is given by all the dictionaries. A question may be raised whether *giving someone weapons* adequately explains the verb *arm*. Such paraphrases of meaning may be incomplete, especially when compared with the one provided by the OALD: "to provide weapons for yourself/somebody in order to fight a battle or a war". It would be inaccurate to say that the 'dissidents' *armed* the government upon Zimbabwe's 1987 Unity Accord when they agreed to hand in their weapons. Instead, they surrendered or were disarmed. Thus, the way *arm* is explained in this sense by many English dictionaries may be regarded as incomplete as long as it is not indicated that the weapons are given in preparation for or in the context of war. What of *preparing for war*, another explanation provided by the OCD and the OPD? This explanation may also be too general, given that to *arm* may be only one part of preparing for war.

The foregoing illustrates by means of a simple word how defining may be taken for granted but to the detriment of the dictionary user. This is not only prevalent in children or school dictionaries, but in other dictionary types as well. Consider the following definition of *hedgehog* extracted from the OALD:

> a small brown European animal with stiff parts like needles (called SPINES), covering its back. Hedgehogs are NOCTURNAL (= active mostly at night) and can roll into a ball to defend themselves when they are attacked.

While it might be relevant to mention that hedgehogs are found in Europe, it is incorrect that they are European animals. Hedgehogs, known as *inhloni* in Zimbabwean Ndebele (Pelling 1975), *inhloli* in Zulu (De Schryver et al 2010) and *intloni* in Xhosa (Fischer et al 2006) are also found in other continents of the world. Defining *hedgehog* as a European animal is therefore misleading because a Zimbabwean learner who knows a hedgehog and its name in his/her native language may think that the dictionary refers to something else, not the animal that one may have seen in Nkayi, Tsholotsho or any other rural area in the country. For Benson (2001), this may be another case of lexicographical ethnocentrism. He reckons:

> Since most of English dictionaries are published in Britain or the United States, this has led to an ethnocentric representation of the language, in which knowledge is filtered through Anglo-American perspectives on English in the world (Benson 2001: i).

The territorially skewed world-view on the part of the lexicographer is transferred to the dictionary user and this may be more misleading for additional language learners such as Zimbabweans who learn English mainly at school. However, it is worth considering that the growth of English lexicography outside Britain was meant to counter the ethnocentrism of the English dictionary (Benson 2001). This problem may not simply be endemic to Britain or America. Zimbabweans using English dictionaries produced in any other country, even in South Africa, may encounter this problem. In the light of the foregoing, the most ideal solution would be for each country to produce its own dictionaries for all the languages that are part of its linguistic inventory, including English. The formulation and guidance of lexicographical criteria such as those of Lombard (1991) will have to be followed in order to formulate paraphrases of meaning that are not only user-friendly as far as age and linguistic background are concerned, but also neutral in political, socio-cultural and religious terms to enhance the understanding of the learner. This will be considered in Chapter Seven as part of the localisation approach (see 7.4.2.2). Besides that, one may need to consider how the use of pictorial illustrations, illustrative examples, indication of sense relations such as synonymy and antonymy, as well as cross-referencing enhances the provision of meaning in dictionaries.

6.6 Considering translation equivalents

Translation equivalents constitute another type of data category that deserves attention within the model of a lexicographical intervention for Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. In essence, this is a discussion of whether bilingual or multilingual dictionaries should be considered as 'necessary', 'compulsory', 'possible', 'optional' and 'appropriate' (Tarp 2008: 148) tools to support the acquisition and use of English by Zimbabwean intermediate learners. At least two reasons render such a discussion worthy. Firstly, bilingual dictionaries are already playing an important role in additional language learning, with data categories in the learners' native languages, especially translation equivalents, providing meaning information either as alternatives or alongside paraphrases of meaning in the language that is being learnt (Tarp 2008: 269). The other reason is the fact that metalexicography has also acknowledged the importance of a "bilingual bridge with a view to leading users from their mother tongue to a foreign language" (Tarp 2008: 267, Stein 2002). Translation equivalents are the core but not exclusive elements of such a bridge, serving the cognitive function of vocabulary learning, text reception as a function-related need and even text production as a usage-related need, even at the intermediate level.

Bilingual dictionaries pairing English with either Shona or Ndebele already exist. Those dictionaries have already been sufficiently criticised for their limited utility value regarding English or their use in general by Zimbabweans (see 1.2 and 4.4.2). Furthermore, the dictionaries are now very old and outdated. Lower-intermediate English learners in Zimbabwe will definitely need a dictionary in the mould of the *South African Oxford Multilingual Primary Dictionary* while dictionaries such as the *Oxford Bilingual School Dictionary: Zulu and English / Isichazamazwi Sesikole Esinezilimi Ezimbili: IsiZulu NesiNgisi Esishicilelwe abakwa-Oxford* may be good for middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners. The advantage with these dictionaries is that they are bi-directional. New vocabulary dealing with modern concepts in science and technology is treated. The acquisition of English as an additional language is clearly identified as part of the genuine purpose of the dictionaries and for this reason, albeit with possible improvements in certain aspects, these dictionaries provide viable options for English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe.

6.7 Illustrative examples

Illustrative examples have become a major feature of modern dictionaries. Previously, Zgusta (1971: 263) argued that their absence severely lowered the standard of many dictionaries. Yet it was after many years that the real purpose of examples in dictionaries was critically debated. Humblé (2001), who regards them as the 'core of foreign language lexicography', observes that while examples have now found more space, especially in learners' dictionaries, their choice and formulation fundamentally lacks a functional classification. The net effect of this is having many lexicographical examples that are, however, less functional. In principle, this is against the lexicographical function theory which asserts that the inclusion of any data in a dictionary should be motivated by at least one of its functions.

This section seeks to determine whether illustrative examples in the studied English dictionaries are provided in a manner that satisfies the lexicographical needs of users such as the Zimbabwean intermediate learners. According to Humblé (2001: 68), although examples are purportedly provided by lexicographers, and consulted by users, for meaning elucidation (cf. McCorduck 1993: 24), "this might indicate the doubtful usefulness of definitions", not "that examples are the best way to understand what a word means". That paraphrases of meaning may sometimes be deficient was demonstrated in 6.5 above (cf. Gouws and Prinsloo 2005, Tarp 2008), leading to lexicographers supporting them with other data categories from which additional meaning information may be retrieved. For Humblé (2001), users do not need examples for text reception. Rather, "examples should concentrate on giving information on syntax and collocation" (Humblé 2001: 77).

There could be a lot of truth in Humblé's (2001) argumentation which now seems to be embraced by many practicing lexicographers. Consider the following statements made regarding examples in the studied dictionaries:

- Up-to-date example sentences and phrases to show how words are used in context (OCD)
- Example sentences from the best children's books show how words are used in practice (OJD)
- Useful, natural examples demonstrate typical usage (LPD)

- Example sentences and phrases show how to use words correctly (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
- Simple example sentences show how to use a word (LSASD)
- example of word in use (SAOSSD)

From the foregoing, it is clear that dictionaries now emphasise the fact that examples are meant to provide assistance regarding syntactic properties and collocational tendencies of words, which are identified as function-related text production needs in Table 4. To this may also be added information on pragmatic and cultural restrictions, which also support text production, although separate usage notes and lexicographical labels effectively serve this need.

However, the idea that lexicographical examples elucidate meaning has not been totally discarded. Not only do users consult examples for the explication of meaning, but lexicographers continue to provide this data category with this purpose in mind. For example, the OPD states that its examples "help make meaning clearer" (Allen and Delahunty 2006: v). The SAOSD (2nd Ed.) also claims to provide examples for this purpose, further stating that they are supplied:

- to illustrate distinctions between literal and figurative use of words;
- to supply additional and useful information about the word;
- when the distinction between two meanings is very fine.

The first and last cases of exemplification in the SAOSD (2nd Ed.) are somewhat connected with meaning. Yet it is equally safe not to base conclusions on the basis of what lexicographers say to their users regarding dictionaries. Thus illustrative examples of the lemma *arm* whose paraphrases of meaning from the same dictionaries were discussed in 6.5 are put to test.

- She put her **arm**s round her little daughter (LPD)
- Put your **arm**s in the air (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
- He was carrying a book under his **arm** (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
- The government **arm**ed the troops (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
- The **arm** of my jacket (SAOSD 2nd Ed.)
- I put my **arm**s around him (LSASD)
- An **arm**s dealer (LSASD)
- An **arm** of sea (SAOSSD)

Table 7: Illustrative examples of *arm* in selected dictionaries

Besides the fifth and the eighth examples, all the others given in Table 7 above only provide syntactic and collocational information. They demonstrate how the user, having retrieved its meaning from the paraphrase of meaning, may go on to use the word. This is generally consistent with the purpose of examples enumerated in those dictionaries and what Humblé (2001) proffers to be the real function of examples.

The fifth example, which is from the SAOSD (2nd Ed.) and the eighth example, which is used in the SAOSSD, elucidate two different meanings of *arm*. For the SAOSD (2nd Ed.), this is consistent with what the dictionary claims to be the use of examples. For the latter it is quite difficult to say since, as shown above, the SAOSSD only states that it provides "examples of words in use" without indicating the functional motivations of doing so. It is the nature of the example which suggests that it elucidates meaning and that if it were to serve any other purpose it would be inadequate. Yet a crucial question that arises is whether any justified need is perceptible in the dictionary articles that necessitate the elucidation of meaning. To address such a question, the examples have to be examined together with the paraphrases of meaning they supplement in providing meaning information. In this regard, it is suggested here that defining *arm* as "sleeve" in the SAOSD (2nd Ed.) or as "something shaped like an arm projecting from the main part of something" in the

SAOSSD is somewhat lacking and that it is the deficiency of this explanation which necessitates the illustration. For SAOSD (2nd Ed.), using "sleeve" to define *arm* is problematic because to some learners *sleeve* may also be unknown. A cross-reference to *sleeve* leads the user to an article which contains two explanations, the first being "the part of a garment that covers the arm" and the other being "the cover of a record". Clearly, the first one is the meaning that the illustrative example for *arm* intended to elucidate. As for the SAOSSD, the explanation "something shaped like an arm projecting from the main part of something", which is supplemented by the example under discussion, is too general and vague as it explains *arm* as 'something' on 'something'. How different then is it from the other meanings given in the same article, namely *limb*, *sleeve* and *arm of a chair*, which are all parts of other things? These cases of exemplification in both the SAOSD (2nd Ed.) and the SAOSSD support Humblé's (2001) assertion that illustrative examples are more effective in providing support in production situations rather than in reception, especially in understanding meaning. However, that should not mean that examples should not be used to elucidate meaning, given that there are some words that may be difficult to define and others that derive their meanings from contextual usage. This means that by illustrating the use of words, some examples may actually enhance the user's understanding of meanings.

Another aspect worth considering with regard to illustrative examples would be their relevance, which has been discussed with regard to paraphrases of meaning in the previous section. Usage will be effectively demonstrated if examples appeal to the immediate environment of the specific users in a way that adds a cognitive dimension to the function of this kind of data category. One dictionary which displays conscious efforts on the part of the lexicographers to use relevant examples is the LPD. In most of the studied dictionaries examples are either ethnocentric in that they tend to reflect on English as if it remains Anglo-American or formulated in such a way that they tend to be as neutral as possible in reflecting the usage of English as a global language. However, the LPD attempts an African appeal in that distinctly African proper names appear for at least 100 times in the illustrative examples used in the article stretch Aa alone, some of these instances being place names of 8 African countries and their cities. On this basis, the claim that the dictionary is targeted at

school students in Africa bears enough merit. As it will be shown in Chapter Seven, this is an instance of localisation. However, there is a limit to the extent of necessary and effective localisation as far as examples are concerned. Consider the illustrative examples for the word *abroad* in some of the studied dictionaries:

- He was famous both at home and **abroad** (OSASD 3rd Ed.)
- Special arrangements for voters living **abroad** (MSD)
- Scatter the seeds **abroad** (SAOSSD)
- My brother is studying **abroad** (LNJED)
- When did Peter Ndlovu go **abroad**? (LPD)

Table 8: Illustrative examples of *abroad* in selected dictionaries

In order to evaluate the relevance and effectiveness of examples for whatever purposes they are used, one needs to look at them with the meanings of words provided by the preceding paraphrases of meaning. In the case of the above-given examples, all of them except the SAOSSD example illustrate *abroad* only in the sense of 'another country'. The SAOSSD also explains the sense of 'over a large area', which is the one that is illustrated by the example quoted in Table 8. That example will be revisited shortly. Regarding the exemplification of *abroad* in the sense of another country, one may observe that with the exception of the LPD example, all the examples in Table 8 are neutral. Whether one is in Zimbabwe, South Africa or Britain, *abroad* remains a foreign country and there can be no confusion from the examples. The LPD example indicates a case of localisation which seems to make examples relevant to English learners in different African countries. However, in this particular case, localisation has been taken a little bit too far. Mainly Zimbabwean learners will know Peter Ndlovu and that he left the country to play football in the English premiership. To them, the sense of abroad would be elucidated and the usage of the word would be illustrated effectively, with England being a clear case of abroad. This may not be the case for those who do not know where he comes from. Accordingly, the name Peter Ndlovu becomes relevant only to Zimbabweans among all the other English learners in Africa who are the target users of the dictionary.

Similarly, the general dominance of South African proper names in the illustrative examples may have similar implications for the relevance and user-friendliness of the LPD in other African countries whose English learners are also its target users, thereby rendering the dictionary's endeavour to assist all primary school pupils in Africa unattainable.

That the SAOSSD presents two paraphrases of meaning of the word *abroad* and use exemplification to elucidate the meaning and usage of the word raises another important point about illustrative examples, i.e. that of presentation. In this regard, a valid and useful distinction is made between an integrated and non-integrated microstructure. This pertains to the proximity and directness in terms of the relationship between paraphrases of meaning in the comment on semantics and the supporting cotext entries representing illustrative examples in each article (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 138). A look at the articles in which all the senses of the polysemous lemma are illustrated by means of examples in the SAOSSD indicates that an integrated microstructure is used, meaning that there is proximity and directness. Generally, this is a more user-friendly approach. However, the exemplification of *arm* in the SAOSSD does not maximally exploit the advantage of this approach. The second sense of the word, i.e. 'all over the place' is the one that is illustrated. This is potentially confusing because some users may not be so sure as to which of the senses is illustrated. User-friendliness would have been maximised if both senses were illustrated as the relationship between the paraphrases of meaning and the supporting examples would be unambiguous. This is important with regard to dictionaries targeted at intermediate learners where the various nuances of words may need to be explained and illustrated.

The illustrative examples discussed in this section are from dictionaries whose target users comprise additional learners of English who share a lot of characteristics with or include the Zimbabwean English intermediate learners. It is really commendable that these dictionaries make use of examples. Having presented in Table 4 the information needs that learners may have which may be satisfied by examples, it is clear that illustrative examples should be a feature of dictionaries that should be considered as part of a lexicographical intervention in the learning and use of English in Zimbabwe. However, the insights from Humblé (2001) are instructive to the point that the

purposes for which dictionaries claim to provide examples should not be taken for granted because those purposes will be served only if the choice and formulation of examples adhere to their functional criteria. There is no doubt though that carefully chosen and formulated examples will be very effective in supporting text production, which is a key area of language learning and use by English Zimbabwean intermediate learners in the context of the Zimbabwean school system. However, the foregoing analysis clearly indicates that great care would be required in the selection, formulation and presentation of examples. There are other aspects of examples that were not discussed here, e.g. the debate between corpus-based and made-up examples, which a lexicographical intervention will have to take into account. This does not discount their importance. The use of corpora may further increase the user-friendliness of examples, although the lexicographers will still need to edit some of the examples taken from corpora and formulate others to provide optimum assistance. It may also result in examples that are culturally relevant to the target users.

6.8 Pictorial illustrations

The established major role of pictorial illustrations in dictionaries is to help understand the meanings of words. Illustrations play a cognitive part in vocabulary acquisition. They also serve as function-related and usage-related needs in text reception and text production situations. In doing this, they are not usually independent data categories but they normally supplement others such as paraphrases of meaning and translation equivalents. However, in terms of utility value, the extent of their use differs mainly according to the target users of different dictionaries of different types. For example, in children's dictionaries and school dictionaries for young learners, pictorial illustrations play a tremendous role since they generally constitute the basis of early childhood learning. They also enhance an aesthetic value which ensures that dictionaries captivate the interest of those users (see 5.5.1 and 5.5.6). Yet publishers will continue to exploit this aesthetic aspect for marketing purposes even in dictionaries for older users such as the middle-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners. As far as pictorial illustrations are concerned, the emphasis should be on the additional utility value that the user enjoys by looking at

the illustration. It is in this regard that this section explores the use of pictorial illustrations in dictionaries that are of interest in this chapter.

One obvious observation to make is the diminishing prevalence of pictorial illustrations as the age of target dictionary users increases. While illustrations are a major highlight in most dictionaries studied in Chapter Five (see 5.5.1 and 5.5.6), the dictionaries studied in this chapter employ illustrations for a small part of their lemma stock. For example, for the reported 40 000 lemmata in the LSASD, it is stated in the blurb that the dictionary contains 300 illustrations and photos.

Furthermore, some dictionaries which contain illustrations make little or no mention of their presence in their introductory matter or cover entries. It appears that the number of lemmata takes precedence as far as the marketing of these dictionaries is concerned. Covering a much bigger scope of a language's vocabulary and providing other data categories is perhaps more important, bearing in mind that illustrations are not always necessary data categories in these dictionaries. Pictorial illustrations supplement paraphrases of meaning and if the latter are clear enough, then the former become irrelevant. Accordingly, some dictionaries indicate that pictorial illustrations have been included to make the meanings of words clearer, e.g. the SAOSD (2nd Ed.), while others place emphasis on the difficult words, e.g. the LPD. Despite these sound claims, a closer look at most illustrations in the studied dictionaries indicates that the policy of illustrating difficult words to make their meanings clearer neither exists in reality nor is implemented where it has been declared. For example, the pictorial illustrations of words such as *bucket*, *clothes*, *horse*, *spider*, *umbrella* and *zebra* in the LSASD, whose general features suit middle- and upper-intermediate learners, would have more utility value in a dictionary that is targeted at younger users. The use of illustrations which is presumed to be supplementing paraphrases of meaning in some cases rather points to the limitedness of the explanations and not the difficulties of explaining the words. For example, a horse is defined as "a large animal that people ride". Given that people also ride donkeys, camels and cattle, a better explanation should have been formulated before considering an illustration which ends up taking more space. With well-formulated paraphrases of meaning, the target users would not possibly experience problems in grasping the meanings of those words even without the extra assistance in the form of illustrations.

However, the above-mentioned argument does not necessarily intend to undermine the functional value of pictorial illustrations. For example, while the paraphrase of meaning of *hedgehog* from the OALD was criticised, it is mainly the illustration of that creature which will help the user realise that hedgehogs are also found in Zimbabwe, even without prior knowledge of the word and its meaning. What is, therefore, required is a clear policy regarding the use of illustrations and its implementation in order to avoid including those which the typical users could do without if the lexicographer had done well with other obligatory data, especially paraphrases of meaning. It is important to identify the kinds of lemmata that would require illustrations. Although it is not explicitly stated anywhere in the SAOSD (2nd Ed.), it seems to have been part of policy to supplement the paraphrases of meaning of vocabulary items that learners encounter in various learning areas. There are, of course, those illustrations which reflect an "illustrate anything" policy, which is equivalent to illustrating everything in the case of dictionaries targeted at younger users. However, the pictorial illustrations of *arc*, *arch*, *atmosphere*, *axis*, *barometer*, *electrical circuit* and *solar power*, among others, really add value to the paraphrases of meaning in clarifying the meanings of these words which users need in science and mathematics. The MSD also deserves special recognition in this regard. Otherwise pictorial illustrations in many dictionaries appear to be a case of mere lexicographical cosmetics which may generate little or no lexicographical appeal from the target users, not to mention achieving a functional value. Intermediate learners do not need these cosmetics to attract them to dictionary use. Instead, the dictionaries should include those categories which will address the user needs.

6.9 Data distribution structure

It is important to begin this section by acknowledging the selectiveness of the previous ones in their discussion of certain lexicographical data in selected dictionaries in view of the lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean intermediate English learners. Only a few but key data categories were discussed and not everything was said about the data categories in general, seeing that they have been discussed for a long time in metalexicography. It was not the objective to offer an exhaustive

discussion of all the data types that the dictionaries should contain. This may be done with regard to specific dictionaries whenever Zimbabwe begins compiling such dictionaries. As far as the preceding sections are concerned, it was sufficient to indicate that a lexicographical intervention in the study and use of English in Zimbabwe at the intermediate level is indeed necessary since dictionaries provide and have the capacity to contain the relevant data. This was also done regarding beginners in Chapter Five.

Another note to be made is that mainly data provided on the levels of macro- and single articles or obligatory microstructures (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005: 91; 142), or alternatively within the context of the wordlist structure (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989) was discussed. Accordingly, this section discusses the utilisation of other lexicographical structures in the selected dictionaries not only to show the availability of data, but also to consider their accessibility to the users. Remarkably, this shifts attention to other types of structures that were not discussed in the previous sections.

As indicated in Chapter Three, a comprehensive discussion of lexicographical structures in modern lexicography will most likely be incomplete without acknowledging Herbert Ernst Wiegand's influence, especially the conceptual framework he formulates in terms of the theory of lexicographical description of language in his general theory of lexicography (Wiegand 1984). However, the notion of lexicographical structure has been advanced further by many other scholars and is now a hypernym to a host of terms which refer to various types of dictionary structures (cf. Gouws 2004; 2007, Gouws and Prinsloo 2005, Nielsen 1999, Tarp 1999; 2008). This section will focus on the data distribution structure whose importance lies in it being "the basic lexicographical structure determining and making possible the other structures in dictionaries" (Tarp 2008: 109). Tarp (2008: 109) defines it as follows:

> …a set of function-relevant underlying relation – of a form or content nature – between data found at various places in a dictionary (Tarp 2008: 109).

Traditionally, the Aa-Zz section in alphabetically arranged dictionaries, which is tellingly also referred to as the main text, is the primary venue of lexicographical data. Regarding this section as 'the dictionary' reflects what is called a wordlist bias

(Gouws (2004; 2007). This bias has implications for the compilation, use and evaluation of dictionaries (cf. Gouws 2004; 2007, Nielsen 2009, Chabata and Nkomo 2010). It limits attention to the macro- and microstructural data, and to a certain extent, the mediostructure operating within the main text. This section considers other structural options that may enhance the data distribution structure and user-friendliness of dictionaries.

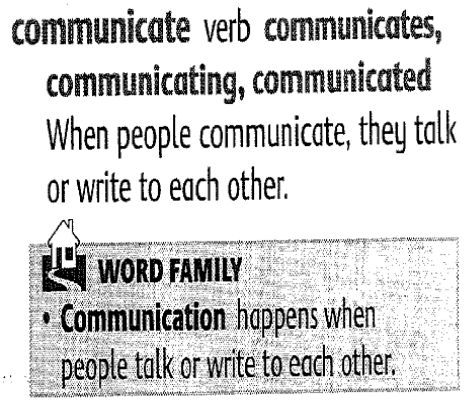
From the studied dictionaries, practicing lexicographers seem to have consciously utilised alternative structural possibilities to provide optimum lexicographical support to language learning and use in situations that are similar to those of Zimbabwean English intermediate learners. Firstly, obligatory microstructures that are characterised by complex articles are used to make more than obligatory data available and accessible (Gouws and Prinsloo 2005). Secondly, a transtextual approach (Gouws 2007) to data distribution means that users can retrieve information from lexicographical data outside the main texts of dictionaries. These innovations contribute to the achievement of certain lexicographical functions.

6.9.1 Complex articles

In Chapter Five (see Subsection 5.5.4), the dictionary articles and generally the microstructures of the OVFD and the OFD were discussed. It was noted that the microstructures of both dictionaries constitute of single articles. However, the latter also makes use of an extended obligatory microstructure as its articles accommodate more than the obligatory data categories, of course depending on the specific features of individual lexical items, in order to cater for an increasing amount of the user needs that the dictionary seeks to address. This becomes more apparent in the case of the dictionaries that have been studied in this chapter. Not only have more data categories been included for certain lexical items, a more comprehensive treatment of certain aspects of the lexical items results in complex articles. In doing this, great care is needed to avoid exponential increases in lexicographical information costs that are accompanied by more dense articles (Nielsen 2008). This may not only upset the realisation of the lexicographical functions of a dictionary, but also the accomplishment of its genuine purpose. Extended obligatory microstructures and

complex articles in the studied dictionaries have indeed enhanced the data distribution and their user-friendliness. This is illustrated by Figure 11 presenting some complex articles from the OJD and the OPD.

A: Article from OJD



communicate verb **communicates, communicating, communicated**
When people communicate, they talk or write to each other.

WORD FAMILY
• **Communication** happens when people talk or write to each other.

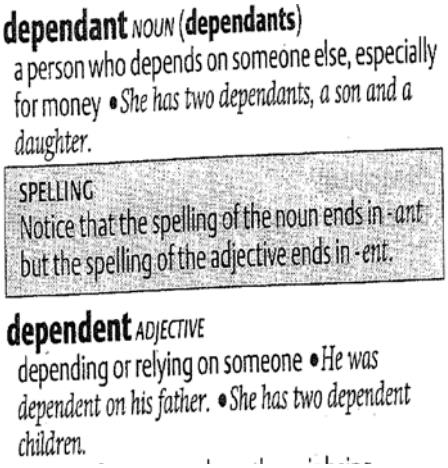
B: Article from OJD

comparative adjective
(*in grammar*) The comparative form of an adjective is the part that means more, for example *bigger* is the comparative form of *big*.

GRAMMAR
- You use the **comparative and superlative** forms of an adjective to compare different people or things: *John is **taller** than Tom. Jack is the **tallest** in our class.*
- You make the comparative and superlative forms of short adjectives by adding the suffixes **-er** and **-est**. For long adjectives, you use the words **more** and **most**.

adjective	comparative	superlative
fast	faster	fastest
big	bigger	biggest
important	more important	most important
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful

C: Article from OPD

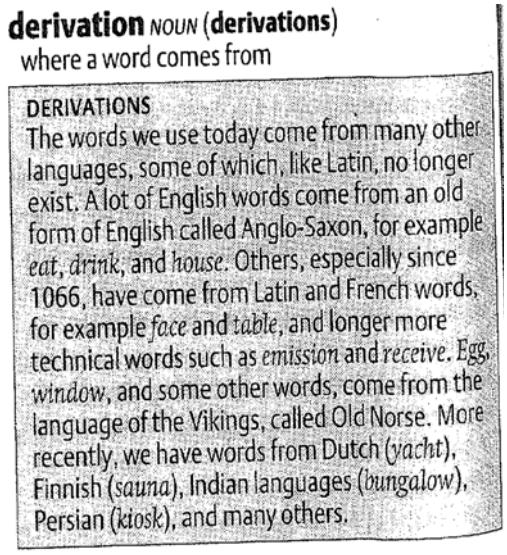


dependant NOUN (**dependants**)
a person who depends on someone else, especially for money •*She has two dependants, a son and a daughter.*

SPELLING
Notice that the spelling of the noun ends in *-ant* but the spelling of the adjective ends in *-ent*.

dependent ADJECTIVE
depending or relying on someone •*He was dependent on his father.* •*She has two dependent children.*

D: Article from OPD



derivation NOUN (**derivations**)
where a word comes from

DERIVATIONS
The words we use today come from many other languages, some of which, like Latin, no longer exist. A lot of English words come from an old form of English called Anglo-Saxon, for example *eat*, *drink*, and *house*. Others, especially since 1066, have come from Latin and French words, for example *face* and *table*, and longer more technical words such as *emission* and *receive*. *Egg*, *window*, and some other words, come from the language of the Vikings, called Old Norse. More recently, we have words from Dutch (*yacht*), Finnish (*sauna*), Indian languages (*bungalow*), Persian (*kiosk*), and many others.

Figure 11: Complex Articles from the OJD and OPD

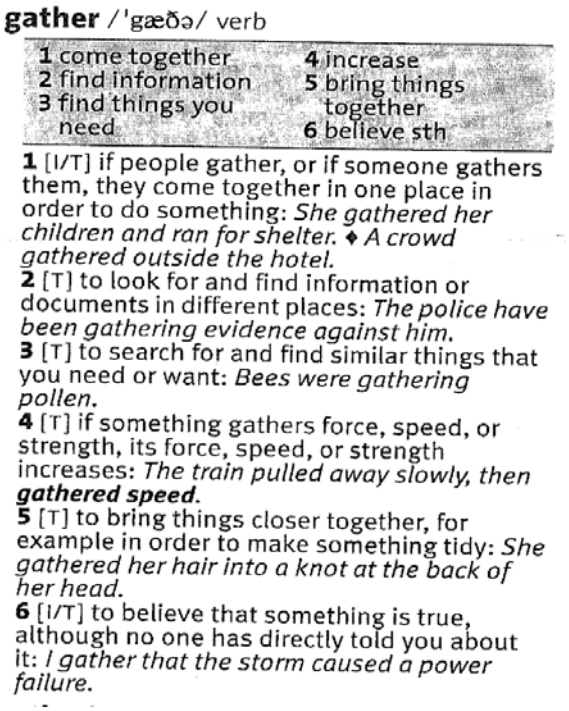
In Chapter Five, the OJD and OPD were mentioned in connection with their employment of extended obligatory microstructures. In some cases, the inclusion of additional data in the dictionaries does not only result in the extended obligatory microstructures but also complex articles. This is clear in Figure 11 which presents illustrative articles from the two dictionaries. Firstly, Article A from the OJD is rendered complex after the inclusion of a 'word family' box. Word family boxes are used in both the OJD and the OPD to present words that are derived from the lemmata heading complex articles but are themselves not included as lemmata. In the word family box, the derivatives are then explained briefly or have their usage illustrated by sentence examples, but not all the obligatory data types supplied for words with lemma status are given. Accordingly, word family boxes remain part of the preceding complex articles and not independent articles.

Article B from Figure 11 illustrates the so-called grammar panels whose inclusion as part of a more comprehensive treatment of words related to grammar results in complex articles. While a subject field label "in grammar" is given after the type of speech label and before the paraphrase of meaning for the lemma *comparative*, the grammar panel provides further treatment to the word. This includes informing the user about the contextual usage and inflection processes of comparatives and superlatives. This is the kind of data that cannot be accommodated in the obligatory microstructure or single articles. However, its contribution to the accomplishment of the functions and genuine purpose of the dictionary is apparent. The grammar panels facilitate the inclusion of this kind of additional data without necessarily increasing the density in the part of the article that is equivalent to single articles. The user's access to data in both the main part of the article and the extra data in the grammar panel is not impeded. The same may be said of the so-called 'special language panel' in Article D which is taken from the OPD. Valuable data on English derivatives is included to add further to the treatment of the lemma *derivation*.

Article C in Figure 11 illustrates how spelling warning results in complex articles in the OPD. Extra data is provided with regard to two related words, *dependant* and *dependent*, the main focus being to caution against a possible spelling error which may result in the wrong meaning being communicated.

In order to understand how the increasing needs of the learners necessitate the use of more complex articles, consider also Figure 12 below which presents articles from the MSD and the LSASD which are targeted at what would be upper-intermediate learners in Zimbabwe.

A: Article from MSD

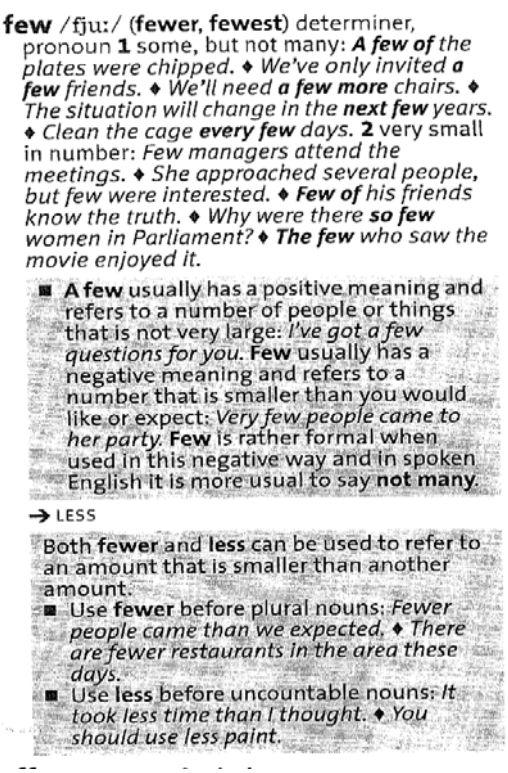


gather /ˈgæðə/ verb

1 come together	**4** increase
2 find information	**5** bring things together
3 find things you need	**6** believe sth

1 [I/T] if people gather, or if someone gathers them, they come together in one place in order to do something: *She gathered her children and ran for shelter.* ♦ *A crowd gathered outside the hotel.*
2 [T] to look for and find information or documents in different places: *The police have been gathering evidence against him.*
3 [T] to search for and find similar things that you need or want: *Bees were gathering pollen.*
4 [T] if something gathers force, speed, or strength, its force, speed, or strength increases: *The train pulled away slowly, then* ***gathered speed****.*
5 [T] to bring things closer together, for example in order to make something tidy: *She gathered her hair into a knot at the back of her head.*
6 [I/T] to believe that something is true, although no one has directly told you about it: *I gather that the storm caused a power failure.*

B: Article from MSD



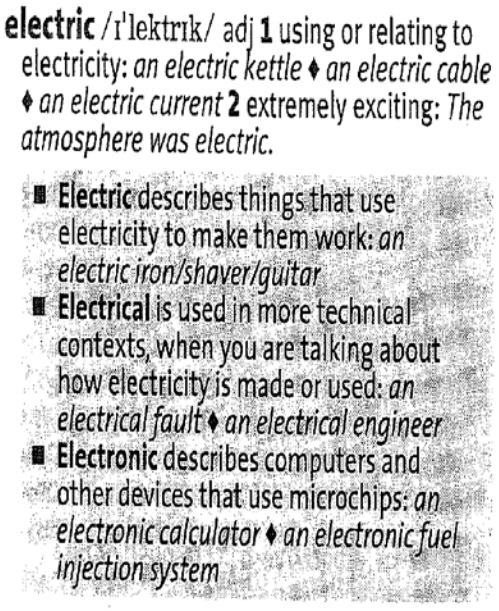
few /fjuː/ (**fewer, fewest**) determiner, pronoun **1** some, but not many: ***A few of*** *the plates were chipped.* ♦ *We've only invited* ***a few*** *friends.* ♦ *We'll need* ***a few more*** *chairs.* ♦ *The situation will change in the* ***next few*** *years.* ♦ *Clean the cage* ***every few*** *days.* **2** very small in number: *Few managers attend the meetings.* ♦ *She approached several people, but few were interested.* ♦ ***Few of*** *his friends know the truth.* ♦ *Why were there* ***so few*** *women in Parliament?* ♦ ***The few*** *who saw the movie enjoyed it.*

■ **A few** usually has a positive meaning and refers to a number of people or things that is not very large: *I've got a few questions for you.* **Few** usually has a negative meaning and refers to a number that is smaller than you would like or expect: *Very few people came to her party.* **Few** is rather formal when used in this negative way and in spoken English it is more usual to say **not many**.

→ LESS

Both **fewer** and **less** can be used to refer to an amount that is smaller than another amount.
■ Use **fewer** before plural nouns: *Fewer people came than we expected.* ♦ *There are fewer restaurants in the area these days.*
■ Use **less** before uncountable nouns: *It took less time than I thought.* ♦ *You should use less paint.*

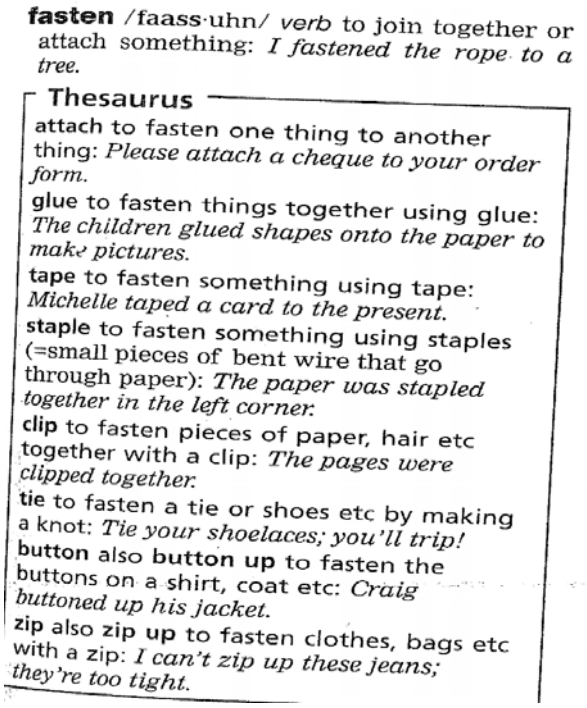
C: Article from MSD



electric /ɪ'lektrɪk/ adj **1** using or relating to electricity: *an electric kettle* ♦ *an electric cable* ♦ *an electric current* **2** extremely exciting: *The atmosphere was electric.*

■ **Electric** describes things that use electricity to make them work: *an electric iron/shaver/guitar*
■ **Electrical** is used in more technical contexts, when you are talking about how electricity is made or used: *an electrical fault* ♦ *an electrical engineer*
■ **Electronic** describes computers and other devices that use microchips: *an electronic calculator* ♦ *an electronic fuel injection system*

D: Article from LSASD



fasten /faass·uhn/ *verb* to join together or attach something: *I fastened the rope to a tree.*

Thesaurus

attach to fasten one thing to another thing: *Please attach a cheque to your order form.*
glue to fasten things together using glue: *The children glued shapes onto the paper to make pictures.*
tape to fasten something using tape: *Michelle taped a card to the present.*
staple to fasten something using staples (=small pieces of bent wire that go through paper): *The paper was stapled together in the left corner.*
clip to fasten pieces of paper, hair etc together with a clip: *The pages were clipped together.*
tie to fasten a tie or shoes etc by making a knot: *Tie your shoelaces; you'll trip!*
button also **button up** to fasten the buttons on a shirt, coat etc: *Craig buttoned up his jacket.*
zip also **zip up** to fasten clothes, bags etc with a zip: *I can't zip up these jeans; they're too tight.*

Figure 12: Articles from the MSD and the LSASD

In Figure 12 A, the number assumed by each key word or phrase in the panel that precedes the comment on semantics corresponds to the more comprehensive paraphrase of meaning in the comment on semantics slot. This procedure is used in the MSD, as can be seen from the example of the article corresponding to the lemma *gather*, to facilitate access to data addressed to polysemous words with an excess of four senses. This is a well-informed decision since the learners at this level need more information on meaning of words, including the existence of multiple senses. The same applies to Figure 12 C where additional information may be found regarding the meaning and use of *few*, as well as the disambiguation of *electric*, *electrical* and *electronic* in Figure 12 B, and the thesaurus box in the complex article corresponding to the lemma *fasten* in the LSASD (Figure 12 D).

6.9.2 Outer texts

Subsection 5.5.5 in the previous chapter illustrated the utilisation of outer texts in children's dictionaries in a way that accomplishes some of the identified lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean English beginners. The present subsection takes this issue further to indicate that intermediate learners may also benefit from outer texts. Some of the texts serve the same functions as in the dictionaries targeted at younger users while others are important in that they contain additional data that cater for the information needs of users at this level.

6.9.2.1 User guides and dictionary exercises

All the studied dictionaries contain front matter texts which provide guidance to their users. In the Oxford dictionaries, the texts entitled 'Dictionary features', illustrating graphically the contents of the dictionaries, are followed by elaborate prosaic texts which provide dictionary using guidance in simplified language. The MSD provides similar guidance through a text entitled 'Using your dictionary' while a self-titled 'guide to the dictionary' is used in the LSASD. The value of the user guides is now generally known. It is mainly the innovative ways in which lexicographers provide such guidance, as demonstrated in the cited dictionaries that may be useful even for

users with a low dictionary culture such as most English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe. The need for guidance is taken further by the LFISD which even provides guidance to teachers. It is observed that since using a dictionary is not easy, teachers need to help their learners acquire the relevant skills. The text entitled 'To the teacher' in the LFISD therefore equips teachers not just with skills of teaching dictionary use, but also those of using dictionaries. It is now also acknowledged that teachers also need assistance in this regard (Wright 2004).

As far as cultivating dictionary skills in the studied dictionaries is concerned, user guides also contain workbook exercises and dictionary games. To ensure that learners can make use of these texts independent of teachers, as learners at this level are expected to develop independent study skills, dictionaries such as the LSASD, MSD and SAOSSD contain answers to which the learners may refer to evaluate themselves. Although English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe have a low dictionary culture, the introduction of dictionaries with such features may go a long way, not in developing the skills, but also in facilitating their study and use of English.

6.9.2.2 General encyclopedic and specialised information about the language

General encyclopedic and specialised information about language may be crucial to language learners. The SAOSD, in its front matter, and the LSASD, in its back matter, provide very useful background information regarding the English language in general before describing South African English. Having been informed of the different sources of English vocabulary, and the fact that certain words of South African origin are treated in this dictionary, the learners are prepared to understand etymological data that is provided in certain dictionary articles. Besides this, most of the dictionaries provide specialised information regarding certain aspects of the language. In particular, the texts on irregular verbs in the LSASD, the MSD and the SAOSSD, as well as language notes in the former may go a long way in supporting text production and cognitive needs of intermediate learners regarding English. They achieve some of the ideals of dictionary grammars described by Tarp (2008).

6.9.2.3 Different kinds of writing

Finally, it is really impressive that the studied dictionaries have adopted the idea of integrated function-adhering outer texts by covering either in the middle matter (e.g. SAOSSD's study section) or back matter as in the LSASD and MSD topics such as punctuation, composition skills, writing curriculum vitae, letters, e-mails, reports etc, taking notes and interpreting graphs, among other educational and professional tasks. All these tasks combine cognitive, text reception and text production skills which the dictionaries do not support in their main texts. For the school dictionaries to provide such support, and other forms of assistance described above in 6.9.2.1 and 6.9.2.2, the data distribution structure and function allocation programmes are optimised. These elements of data distribution structure in the studied dictionaries may go a long way in supporting the needs of Zimbabwean intermediate English learners and developing a dictionary culture among them.

6.10 Conclusion

It is clear from the previous sections that Zimbabwean intermediate English learners definitely require a lexicographical support. It is also clear that other countries have already made significant progress in supporting similar learners in similar situations. The study of the dictionaries that have been produced for this purpose indicated that lexicography may indeed provide some of the support needed in the study and use of English by intermediate learners in Zimbabwe. However, the discussion of lemma selection policies, paraphrases of meaning and illustrative examples made it clear that the available dictionaries may fall short if they were to be presented as the sole lexicographical intervention in Zimbabwe. The reasons are mainly two-fold. Firstly, the dictionaries were not produced with Zimbabweans and the target users in mind. Secondly, some of the dictionaries are fundamentally deficient in certain respects because of poor policies or inconsistent application of good policies. On this account, the compilation of certain English dictionaries for Zimbabwean users is theoretically-motivated, but as will be shown in the next chapter, good planning and prioritisation will be key aspects in order to address several potential challenges and ensure that functional and user-friendly dictionaries are produced.

CHAPTER SEVEN

A MODEL FOR LEXICOGRAPHICAL INTERVENTION

7.0 Introduction

By critiquing selected English dictionaries in the last two chapters, particularly focusing on their strengths and limitations when it comes to the needs of Zimbabweans as non-native learners of English, and indicating how the dictionaries could be made more user-friendly, the dissertation has implicitly formulated a model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in the country. That model remains very vague in as much as it simply identified English beginners' dictionaries and English intermediate learners' dictionaries as its key elements. Of course it gave some insights on key areas that should be taken into account in addressing the limitations of some existing English dictionaries, but a key question remains regarding the inventory of tools that should result from practical efforts towards the realisation of the model. Furthermore, what are the implications of such a model for English lexicography in general, Zimbabwean lexicography and a dictionary using culture in Zimbabwe? How can such a model be implemented?

It is the main purpose of this chapter to grapple with the outstanding issues raised in the preceding paragraph, essentially to consider the feasibility of the proposed model against the background that was provided in Chapters One and Four. However, the model needs to be consolidated and presented in explicit terms first. This is done in Section 7.1. The model is then motivated in Section 7.2 to show the role that may be played by the proposed dictionaries, which Chapter Five and Chapter Six respectively discussed within broad categories of beginners' and intermediate learners' dictionaries. Section 7.3 puts the model into two perspectives, firstly as part of English lexicography in general and, secondly, as part of Zimbabwean lexicography. This subsequently leads to Section 7.4 where the localising approach is centrally located at the core of the implementation of the proposed model. However, the development of a dictionary culture is presented as fundamental to all those efforts that may result in dictionaries playing an important role in the acquisition and use of English in the country. Section 7.6 concludes the chapter.

7.1 A model for lexicographical support regarding English in Zimbabwe

The lexicographical situation regarding English in Zimbabwe is, as shown in Chapters One and Four, contradictory to the demands placed on learning this language, which is the country's sole official language. There is ample evidence that dictionaries are not adequately recognised as tools that may address some of the challenges faced by learners in their acquisition and use of English.

Firstly, dictionaries continue to be rare objects at schools where English is learnt and mostly used. While the situation at the bookshops has improved over the last three years of the present research, the range of English dictionaries being sold is still very limited. This situation may deteriorate, given the fact that at the height of the country's economic meltdown in 2009, when the first fieldwork was conducted, dictionaries were not even available in the bookshops. Bookshops are most likely to stop stocking dictionaries as long as schools do not integrate them into language pedagogy and learning in general.

Secondly, the available dictionaries do not constitute a suitable lexicographical support for Zimbabweans owing to a number of reasons. The most deplorable situation is the dominance of advanced learners' dictionaries, even at primary schools. As clearly demonstrated in Chapter Four, advanced English learners in Zimbabwe would be those individuals who have passed the language subject at 'O' Level. In that regard, the available lexicographical support regarding English in Zimbabwe misses where it matters most, i.e. the pre-'O' Level acquisition of the language which would benefit English beginners and intermediate learners. The dominance of an advanced English learners' dictionary, even at primary schools, portrays dictionaries as 'nice to haves' rather than utility products. It is not surprising that the available dictionaries are properties of headmasters and English subject heads of departments, or even locked up in the special library cabinets at schools with teachers discouraging their use by learners. However, as shown in Chapter Five and Chapter Six, some of the dictionaries studied display features which provide a good point of departure for practical localisation which will make the dictionaries more relevant and user-friendly to Zimbabwean users.

As indicated in Chapter Four, the limited supply of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe could be attributed to, among other factors, the fact that most of the dictionaries are produced abroad. In its illustrious years, Zimbabwean lexicography gave no attention whatsoever to the lexicographical needs of Zimbabweans regarding English. The fact that practical lexicography over the last two decades concentrated on Shona and Ndebele on the merit that the development of these national languages was long overdue does not, however, justify the lack of measures, including a lexicographical one, of addressing the numerous challenges associated with English acquisition in the country. It is on this basis that a Zimbabwean model for lexicographical support in the acquisition and use of English in the country is proposed. This model is presented below.

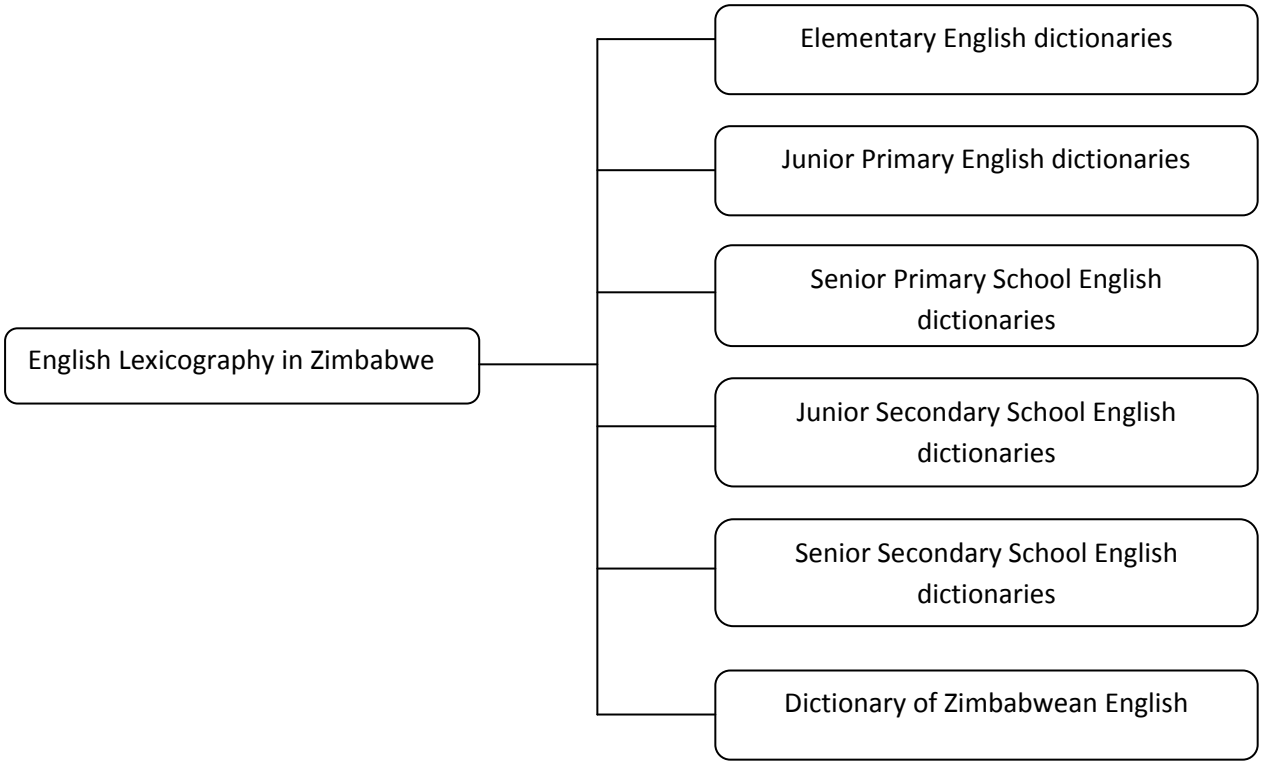


Figure 13: A proposed model for English dictionaries in Zimbabwe

The proposed model presented in Figure 13 is a slightly revised version of the draft that was tested by means of workshops with various stakeholders involved in the teaching and assessment of English in the country (see Chapter Two). The modifications of the original model will be explained in the next section which motivates the model to demonstrate how its different elements would constitute a

theoretically sound and practical intervention with regards to some problems obtaining in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe.

7.2 Motivation for the model

The main purpose of motivating the proposed model is to indicate the rationale behind its different elements and entirety as a form of lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. The proposed model and its motivation are an explication of the implicit model that was simultaneously formulated in the previous two chapters while evaluating some existing English dictionaries using the now general concepts of beginners, intermediate and advanced learners as categories of the users of learners' dictionaries. When these concepts are applied to the Zimbabwean context, they do not only bear different meanings from those used in language acquisition studies (Tarp 2008: 139). They also tend to transcend the formulations and applications proffered by Tarp (2004; 2008). For example, the intermediate level in Zimbabwe proves to be too broad for the potential users at that level to be satisfied by one dictionary. While the previous two chapters indicate the difficulty of finding English learners' dictionaries that would support Zimbabwean learners who acquire the language through the education system in Zimbabwe, it would still be too general and less insightful to say that specifically Zimbabwean English dictionaries for beginners, intermediate and advanced learners would be a panacea. Therefore, while the production of the proposed dictionaries need to follow the criteria that have been formulated within the theory of learners' lexicography, as argued in Chapter Three, the dictionaries will have to be school dictionaries, but not in the traditional sense which refers to those produced for native speakers (Hartmann and James 1998: 107). School dictionaries, just like those that have been produced in South Africa, may easily be integrated into the curriculum and they may also be produced in view of the prevailing linguistic, historical and cultural factors that affect the acquisition of an additional language. Therefore, in motivating the proposed model, a stronger connection is made between the existing English dictionaries and those that are proposed, taking into account the features of the former and the specific situations in which the specific potential users may benefit from the latter. The

section, thus, places the proposed dictionaries within the context of English learning and use in the country.

7.2.1 Elementary school dictionaries

The proposed elementary dictionaries would be conceptually similar to the existing OVFD, OFD, the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries and the Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries that were discussed in Chapter Five. It needs to be pointed out that 'elementary school dictionaries' was adopted as an alternative to 'foundation phase dictionaries', as can be seen from Appendix 3, during the workshops and discussions of the draft model. The term 'elementary' was preferred as it is officially used in the education sector in Zimbabwe compared to 'foundation phase' which was admittedly regarded as 'more South African'. It makes sense that the prospective dictionaries, being targeted mainly at school-going English learners, bear an identity that can easily be recognised by those involved in the education sector. The naming of the dictionaries becomes a major step in the localisation approach to English lexicography (see Section 7.4).

In spite of the foregoing, the main targets of the dictionaries proposed in this subsection remain the same. The elementary English dictionaries in Zimbabwe are proposed as an intervention in the early acquisition of the language, which is between Grade 1 and Grade 3. The proposed dictionaries should assist these pupils with English spelling, vocabulary and grammar as is supposed to be acquired at this stage. Some design features of the OVFD, OFD, the Oxford first bilingual dictionaries and Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries which were recommended in Chapter Five should essentially be adopted. These include large and colourful fonts, pictures, spacious layout and very simple structures. The primary school teachers found the dictionaries that were used for demonstration during the model-testing workshops very attractive and potentially helpful in this regard.

However, every necessary step should be taken to ensure that the proposed dictionaries are a result of the localisation approach that is discussed in detail later in the chapter. One consideration in this regard pertains to the role of native languages in

the acquisition of additional languages especially at beginner level. The strengths of the bilingual solution adopted in the Maskew Miller Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries and Oxford first bilingual dictionaries discussed in 5.6 have to be fully exploited. The bilingual solution (Stein 2002: 20, see also 5.6 and 6.6) in the Oxford bilingual first dictionaries and Longman Foundation Phase dictionaries was highly appreciated during the model-testing workshops. It is one aspect which became an eye-opener to the primary school teachers, who had previously believed that dictionaries are generally too sophisticated for elementary pupils. It dawned upon them that lexicography can actually provide solutions to the early acquisition of an additional language. The major question that was, however, repeatedly raised in various workshops pertains to the native languages that would constitute the bilingual solutions for English beginners in Zimbabwe. Should it be Shona and Ndebele alone seeing that mother-tongue education in Zimbabwe currently sees the so-called minority languages making inroads into the school curriculum? This question has implications for the number of elementary dictionaries that would have to be produced to support the acquisition of English in Zimbabwe as well as the structure of the dictionaries.

7.2.2 Junior primary school dictionaries

The idea of junior primary school dictionaries, now part of the proposed model in Figure 10, was not originally part of draft model, as it may be seen from Appendix 3. However, during the model testing workshops, elementary dictionaries and senior primary school dictionaries were deemed insufficient to be regarded as the only two categorical types of dictionaries for English learners at primary schools. It was found to be inappropriate to consider Grade 4 learners as senior primary pupils. This was an oversight which, while not effectively invalidating the categorisation of Grade 4 and Grade 7 learners together as lower-intermediate learners (see 4.1.2), disregarded the gradual changes in the way English is taught and used between Grade 4 and Grade 7. Some of the changes were cited from the Grade 5 and Grade 6 English syllabi (see 4.1.2). The criticism of the model in this respect was a welcome input from the workshop participants, especially primary school teachers. From a lexicographical

point of view, the proposed model subsequently realises a need for a dictionary which will scaffold English acquisition and use between two extreme opposite strands of the position of the language in the language-in-education policy, i.e. the elementary level where English should only be taught as a subject and the senior primary school where it should also be compulsorily used as a medium of instruction. The junior level, therefore, may be regarded as the transition stage. While a dictionary that is designed for learners at this stage should be more comprehensive and complex compared to the elementary dictionaries, it certainly has to be smaller and less sophisticated than the one designed for learners who are preparing for primary school leaving examinations and the subsequent secondary school education. Furthermore, if the language-in-education policy has to be enforced, the freedom of resorting to the mother tongue in situations where learners find it difficult to express themselves may not be the same for the learners in Grade 4 and those in Grade 7. This has implications for the extent of bilingual solutions in the dictionaries.

There already exist a number of dictionaries that bear 'junior … dictionary' as part of their titles. Examples include the LNJED and the OJD, both of which were discussed in the previous chapters. Like most dictionaries studied in this research, their major limitation is that they were not produced to support the acquisition of the language in Zimbabwe, bearing in mind the education system as well as the linguistic and cultural factors surrounding the acquisition of English. For instance, the presentation of pronunciation data using the IPA in the LNJED makes that data inaccessible to most learners who may be classified as English intermediate learners in Zimbabwe. On the other hand, the OJD, having been prepared with the UK and Scottish primary school children in mind, may be limited when the sociolinguistics informing the acquisition of English in Zimbabwe is concerned. This shows that the concept of junior primary school dictionaries in Zimbabwe would not exactly be the same as in the already existing dictionaries, although more can be learnt from them as may be seen from the positive appreciation of some of their aspects in the previous two chapters.

7.2.3 Senior primary school dictionaries

The proposed senior primary school dictionaries are earmarked for English learners in Grade 6 and Grade 7 following a revision on the original draft model in which learners between Grade 4 and Grade 7 were classified as senior primary learners (see 7.2.2 above). Three primary school dictionaries which were discussed in the previous chapters, namely the LPD, the OPD and the Zimbabwean published VSD are conceptually the closest to the proposed senior primary school dictionaries for Zimbabwe. Their first major criticism has been the fact that they were conceived as 'one size-fits-all' primary school learners. While senior primary school learners may benefit from most of the data categories that are included in these dictionaries, the dictionaries covertly ignore the lexicographical needs of younger learners such as the Zimbabwean English beginners, who are also attending primary schools. When it comes to the senior primary school learners, the IPA symbols used to present pronunciation data will definitely be a serious impediment in the VSD, while the lack of geographical focus, and hence a disregard of specific education systems, makes the UK published OPD somewhat deficient when it comes to the needs of Zimbabwean learners which are influenced by cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The latter point also applies to some extent to the LPD which targets the entire Africa despite different education systems in the various countries (see 6.7, for instance, on illustrative examples). Furthermore, efforts of taking into account the needs of elementary and junior primary learners end up populating these relatively voluminous dictionaries with data items and indicators which may impede the development of lexicographical skills of the senior learners. Notwithstanding these concerns, these three dictionaries, including the VSD, may easily be localised to support senior primary school learners in Zimbabwe.

7.2.4 Junior secondary school dictionaries

Junior secondary school dictionaries, targeted at the learners between Form 1 and Form 2, will be required to open up secondary education which is characterised by an increased number of school subjects which are taught in English and an increasing complexity of English as a school subject. At this stage, the learners were

characterised as intermediate learners, middle-intermediate learners to be specific. However, intermediate learners' dictionaries in general have not become part of the Zimbabwean English acquisition landscape. For example, while regarding the *New Method English Dictionary* (NMED) as a path-breaking learners' dictionary that can be helpful to intermediate learners the world over, Templer (2008 :10) laments that "very few teachers anywhere have seen" it. This applies to Zimbabwean teachers as well. As shown in 4.3.3, this dictionary was not found in any of the schools that were surveyed. The dictionary could only be found as part of the Longman Zimbabwe's stock. Even if the dictionary culture was to develop suddenly, an up-to-date and localised junior secondary school dictionary in the mould of the NMED would be needed.

7.2.5 Senior secondary school dictionaries

Senior secondary school English dictionaries have to be the final element in the model as far as the acquisition of English through the education system is concerned, with Forms 3 and 4 learners being the target users. Taking the cue from Chapter Six regarding the needs of upper-intermediate learners (6.2), the dictionaries in this category should support the learners preparing to sit for the English examination at 'O' Level. Since English plays an important role as the language of learning and assessment in the other subjects, the dictionaries should also treat specialised vocabulary items and registers from the various school subjects. Otherwise specialised dictionaries would be needed as well, but this is slightly on the margins of this study.

There are currently a number of school dictionaries that are targeted at secondary school learners. Although some of them, such as the LSASD and the MSD, do not specify the secondary school level that they targets, a number of features in them clearly indicate that senior secondary school learners are the primary target. The SAOSSD clearly indicates that it is intended for Grade 9 to Grade 12 learners, who are the senior secondary school learners in the South African context. Like the other

dictionaries discussed between 7.2.1 and 7.2.4 above, localisation will make them more relevant and user-friendly to the Zimbabwean learners.

7.2.6 A Dictionary of Zimbabwean English

A dictionary of Zimbabwean English needs not to be regarded as strictly a form of lexicographical intervention in the acquisition of English but a strong possibility as its annexe. There is at present no consensus among Zimbabwean scholars whether or not Zimbabwean English is now a reality (cf. Makoni 1996, Mlambo 2009, Kadenge 2009) and this is a debate on which the present study should not pay much attention. However, the study may not turn a deaf ear to certain arguments for Zimbabwean English, especially those that have lexicographical implications. For the purpose of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition of English in Zimbabwe, a dictionary of Zimbabwean English would not be a major priority. It has to be preceded by those that have been proposed between Sections 7.2.1 and 7.2.5, as well as extensive research on the existence of idiosyncratic features of the language used in the country as far as vocabulary, meaning and pronunciation, among others, are concerned. Such research was outside the scope of the present study. The production of the dictionaries discussed in the preceding subsections may give some useful insights as well.

7.3 Perspectives on the model

The proposed model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe implies that practical English lexicography needs to be established in the country. This will give a new shade to English lexicography in general and a completely different picture of Zimbabwean lexicography as well. These implications have to be put into perspective as they have a bearing on the feasibility and actual realisation of the model. Simultaneously, putting the model into perspective further affirms the necessity of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in the country. Figure 11 below contextualises the proposed model within English lexicography in general.

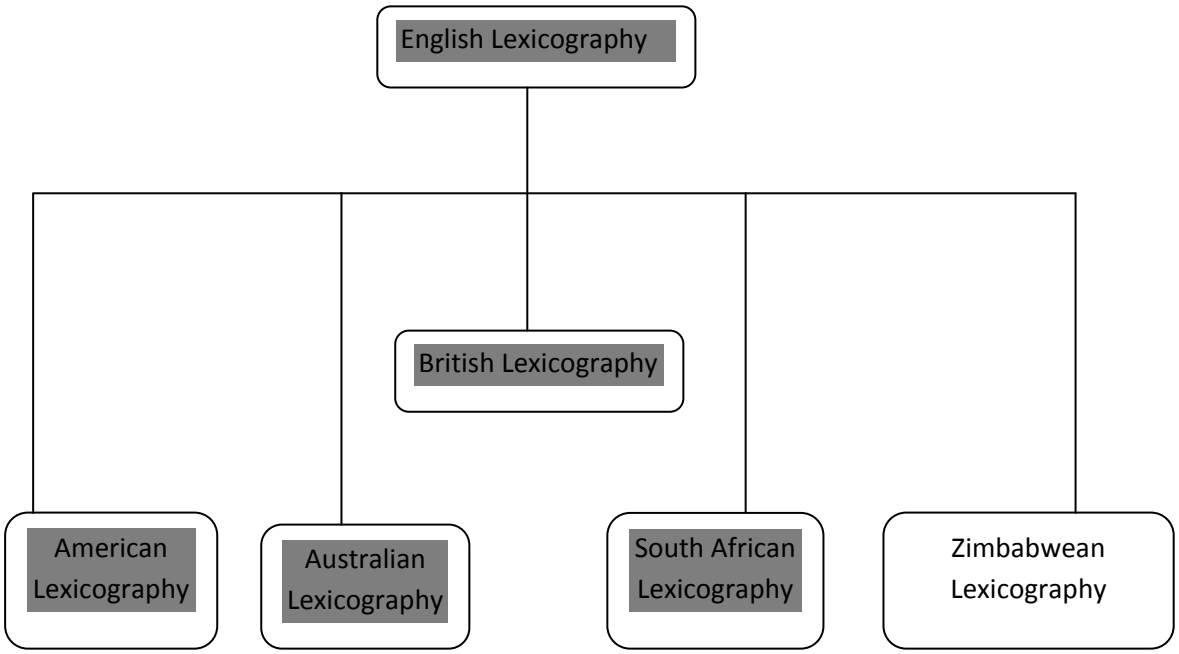


Fig. 14: English lexicography in Zimbabwe as part of English lexicography in general

As Figure 14 shows, Britain is the cradle of English lexicography. As part of English lexicography in general, English lexicography in Zimbabwe would occupy its place just like English lexicography in America, Australia, South Africa and other English-speaking countries. However, English lexicography in Zimbabwe needs to be put into perspective, as it was in the other cited countries where it is now established. Whereas English lexicography emerged in the cited countries mainly to reflect English usage

that developed around new varieties of the language (cf. Béjoint 2000, 2010; Benson 2001; Delbridge and Butler 1999; Gouws 1999; Landau 1989), the proposed model in the case of Zimbabwe is not mainly motivated by the realisation of a new variety called Zimbabwean English, which remains a contentious issue, as indicated in 7.2.6 (cf. Makoni 1996, Mlambo 2009, Kadenge 2009). Rather, the present study considers the fact that at its inception, English lexicography was intended to support native English speakers in Britain and not additional language learners (cf. Johnson 1747). However, with the spread of English, coupled by the socio-economic and political demands to learn this language in the different parts of the world, English lexicography was reconfigured to include English additional language learners as users of English dictionaries. This gave impetus to English learners' lexicography. Cowie (2002: 2) writes:

> Learners' dictionaries were needed because linguistic information of a certain specificity and depth … had been brought to light and only special dictionaries could capture its fullness and complexity.

As indicated earlier on, in their quest to satisfy the needs of additional English learners, Michael West, Harold Palmer and Albert S. Hornby undoubtedly gave English lexicography an international outlook. However, the subsequent centralisation of English learners' lexicography within the lexicographical traditions of OUP and company confined the centre of English lexicography, including learners' lexicography, to mainly Britain. It is on that account that certain elements have been found in learners' dictionaries, such as the definition of *hedgehog* discussed in 6.5, which have generated criticism on the epitomes of English learners' lexicography, the "Big Five", for being "too British" (Tomaszczyk 1983), an ethnocentric character in English lexicography (Benson 2001). As part of English lexicography in general, the proposed model seeks to extend the frontiers of learners' lexicography to Zimbabwe. If the rationale of learners' lexicography has to be realised in practice, the limitations resulting from the generalisations made in learners' dictionaries, especially with regard to user profiles and user situations, can only be overcome if countries like Zimbabwe were to be provided with English dictionaries that take into account the sociolinguistic factors surrounding the acquisition and use of English as an official language. Therefore, the proposed model seeks to refine the cutting edge of English learners' lexicography by considering those dictionaries which have not been made

available for Zimbabwean learners of English. It is mainly being specific, and perhaps the avoidance of confusion and competition with the established trends, that the dictionaries have to be called school dictionaries rather than learners' dictionaries.

As part of Zimbabwean lexicography, the proposed model for lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe may be represented by Figure 15.

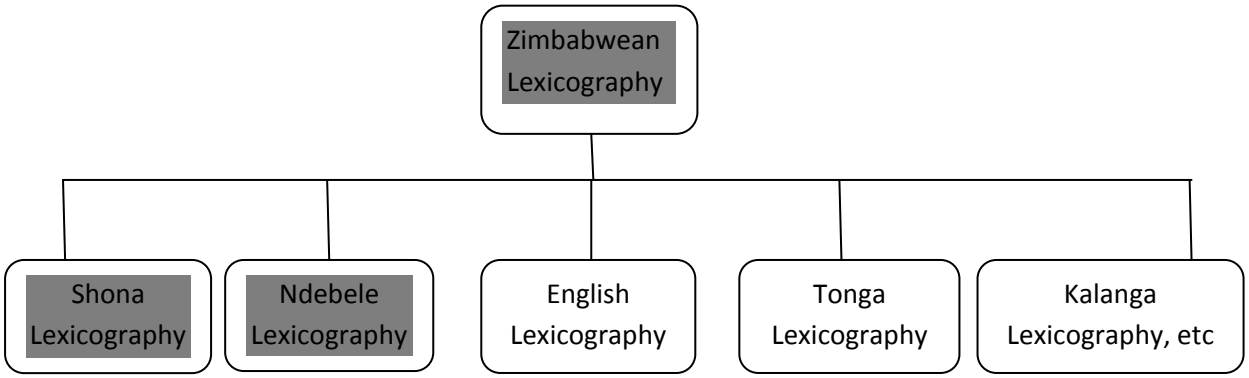


Figure 15: English lexicography in Zimbabwe as part of Zimbabwean lexicography

In Chapter One, it was shown that the face of Zimbabwean lexicography reflects on the dominance of Shona and Ndebele dictionaries, with the VSD, having no show on the metalexicographical stage and being a stranger in the primary schools where it purports to belong. Although the rationale for this situation is understandable, it is insufficient in that pedagogical problems related to language have not been eradicated by the recent exponential growth in Zimbabwean practical lexicography, notwithstanding the fact that not all the problems are lexicographically relevant.

Should practical lexicography in English take root in Zimbabwe as a step towards the realisation of the proposed model, the scope of Zimbabwean lexicography will be broadened, not just for the sake of it but for a worthwhile cause. As it will be demonstrated in the next section, dictionaries, especially English dictionaries, deserve more space in the education system and can address some of the critical problems. However, in addition to practical lexicography in Shona, Ndebele and English, the expeditious implementation of the language-in-education policy regarding minority

languages, which will see a language such as Tonga being examined as a school subject at Grade Seven for the first time in the November 2011 examinations, should also be seen as a reason for expanding the scope of practical lexicography in Zimbabwe. Perhaps this development also needs to be taken into account when it comes to bilingual solutions, especially at elementary, junior and even senior primary school English dictionaries in the proposed model. This means that not only bilingual dictionaries pairing English with Shona or Ndebele will be necessary. A bilingual dictionary pairing English with Tonga may also be necessary. There may also be need for multilingual ones such as the *South African Oxford Multilingual Primary Dictionary: English with Afrikaans / IsiXhosa / IsiZulu / Siswati*.

7.4 A localisation approach towards the implementation of the model

In this section, localisation is regarded as the most viable approach towards the successful realisation of a model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. In this context, localisation should be understood on two different levels, which may be termed institutional localisation and practical localisation. These, together with their implications on the realisation of the model, need to be explained.

7.4.1 Institutional localisation of the model

Firstly, what needs to be localised in order to realise the goals of the proposed model is the whole idea of English and the problems associated with its acquisition and use in Zimbabwe. Essentially, this includes recognising the fact that English is currently one of Zimbabwe's languages, as reflected in the national language policy. It is high time that politically hypersensitive perspectives on English language in Zimbabwe, especially the continued scholarly association of the language with colonialism, over thirty years after independence, are buried. Now we need progressive scholarship which, further to devising steps of promoting indigenous languages, engages with the real problems of English in the country, chief among them being the low proficiency among the majority of the citizens. It is the responsibility of Zimbabweans to directly

address some of those problems to ensure that the number of Zimbabweans who are disadvantaged by low proficiency or incompetence problems is significantly reduced, rather than giving them exclusively mother-tongue prescriptions as alternatives. That way, more functionally multilingual nationals may be cultivated and a truly multilingual nation may be forged.

It is on the first level of localisation that the present study has identified some gaps in Zimbabwean lexicography. So far, Zimbabwean lexicography has not been holistic in its approach to the linguistic problems that lexicography has the capacity to solve. Its focus has prioritised Shona and Ndebele as the national languages. The minority languages and English, whose lexicography is the major pre-occupation of the present research, have received very little or no attention at all. The endeavour of ALRI has not gone down well with the speakers of the minority languages and has been overly criticised by scholars such as Ndhlovu (2009), disregarding the futuristic approach of ALRI through which minority languages are hoped to be afforded more attention later on (Chabata 2007; 2008), further building on the foundations of preliminary research such as Chabata (2007a). On the other hand, English lexicography and other professional practices that may solve problems associated with this language remain totally out of sight. Not that the problems are not being recognised, as indicated earlier on. The solutions to these problems seem to be regarded as beyond the responsibility of Zimbabweans, with silence on the efforts of addressing the problems being testimony to this. This is the challenge which inspires this study, i.e. realising that lexicographical problems experienced by Zimbabweans in their acquisition and use of English are problems of Zimbabwean lexicography whose solutions may not be fully addressed by means of the mere importation of externally-produced English dictionaries. This equally applies to other problems which are not relevant to lexicography but may be investigated in different fields of applied linguistics and language planning. Therefore, a holistic approach towards linguistic problems in Zimbabwe will need to encapsulate a localisation approach to the problems associated with English in Zimbabwe. This may include institutionalised academic and professional activities such as those undertaken by the Molteno Project and the Institute for the Study of English in Africa, in South Africa, or expanding and rebranding ALRI into a Zimbabwean Language Institute.

Furthermore, publication considerations are pertinent to this form of localisation. At present, the English dictionaries that are available in Zimbabwe have been published in Britain, America and, recently, South Africa. Only the VSD qualifies to be regarded as a Zimbabwean dictionary if place of publication is an adequate qualification. If English dictionaries are to be produced whose main endeavour is primarily to assist Zimbabweans, they need to be Zimbabwean dictionaries. Having such dictionaries published locally would not only facilitate localisation of the second level, which may result in the produced dictionaries being more relevant to the Zimbabwean situation and user-friendly. With the dictionaries prioritised in the model being school dictionaries that essentially have to be relevant to the Zimbabwean curriculum, local publication also stands a better chance of creating a bonding relationship between the dictionaries and their users. This will be a necessary ingredient in the establishment of a dictionary culture.

In the light of the above, a question may be asked as to why Zimbabwean publishers have not taken an active role in the production of English dictionaries for Zimbabweans and whether their reasons do not pose a huge impediment on the implementation of the proposed model. Through interactions with Longman Zimbabwe and College Press, the two Zimbabwean publishers with which the proposed model was tested, insights were gained regarding the prospects of the model from the publishers' perspectives. The choice of these two publishers for the purpose of this research was explained in 2.7, namely that they are affiliated to internationally reputable publishers, namely Longman International/Pearson Education and Macmillan respectively, which have made immense contributions to English lexicography. As extensions of those international publishers, Longman Zimbabwe and College Press have played a limited role as far as English lexicography is concerned by distributing the dictionaries that have been produced in other countries. As previously shown, the latter has taken a small step further by publishing the VSD, unfortunately without any significant efforts of localising it. So, can these publishers play a more active role in English lexicography, especially in a manner that can facilitate the implementation of the proposed model?

A general and brief report on the workshops conducted with Longman Zimbabwe and College Press suffices in addressing the issue. Firstly, the participants in both

workshops were convinced that the proposed model is a worthwhile intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. On their part, Longman Zimbabwe employees drew the researcher's attention to the fact that their *Step In* textbook series contains a mini-dictionary section. The mini-dictionary gives meanings of "some of the words used … which pupils may have found difficult" (Brown and Musara 2010, Musumhi and Yon 2009). The general scarcity of dictionaries, coupled with a poor dictionary culture, motivated the inclusion of the mini-dictionary section in the series to support text reception during the use of the textbooks.

While the assistance rendered is limited to meaning information, the fact that the publisher recognises the need for lexicographical support is encouraging to this research. This is one of the first steps in establishing a system of integrated dictionary use. According to Gouws (2011), the provision of lexicographical assistance within a textbook by means of including a dictionary in a textbook as has been done in the *Step In* English textbook series makes users aware that dictionaries should not be seen as isolated tools. In this case the mini-dictionary serves the same genuine purpose as the textbooks, i.e. facilitating the acquisition and use of English, and may therefore be regarded as an integrated outer text of the textbook series. Despite the limited data that is included, the textbooks may then be used as the basis for the compilation of independent dictionaries which will include more data in view of the specific requirements at the language learning level. The learners may find such dictionaries useful as they will be addressing those problems they encounter in their everyday use of the textbooks.

Longman Zimbabwe may be fully aware of the limited assistance that the mini-dictionary of their textbooks may provide. Therefore, the need for lexicographical assistance is recognised beyond the use of textbooks. This is made amply clear to pupils from the very outset, i.e. as they start using the series in Grade 4, coincidentally the level where English assumes more prominence in the school curriculum. The authors of the Grade 4 textbook seized the opportunity of guiding their pupils on letter writing in one of the chapters by using a letter which is lexicographically enlightening to the pupils, teachers and the society at large. Letter writing is illustrated by a letter written by Nomusa, a Grade 4 pupil, to his uncle Ben. Part of the letters goes:

> Mr. Chigwindiri is my new teacher and I like him too. He wants us to read a lot of books and magazines. He has been around the village collecting books from people if they no longer want them. A corner in the class room has been set aside for these books.
>
> Everyday he gives us thirty minutes for silent reading. We choose what we want to read. I really enjoy it, *but I do not have a dictionary*. Mr. Chigwindiri says *a good reader should have one*.
>
> Please could you buy me one? *I don't mean a big one like those they use in secondary schools but a small one for Grade 4. … I want to understand all the books I read* (Brown and Musara 2010: 118).

The richness of Nomusa's letter to uncle Ben in terms of lexicographical pedagogy will be discussed in detail in Section 7.5 as it is a clear effort of cultivating a dictionary culture. Here it serves to demonstrate the lexicographical consciousness of Longman Zimbabwe as a publisher. However, the presentation of the draft model still challenged Longman Zimbabwe that these commendable efforts, which include the local distribution of various Longman and Pearson Education dictionaries from Britain, America and South Africa, may still be bettered. This means that the limitations of externally published dictionaries, especially when it comes to the needs of school learners were appreciated. More crucially, the practical localisation of dictionaries encapsulated in the proposed model and discussed in Subsection 7.4.2 below, appealed to Longman Zimbabwe.

College Press was more than proud to show the VSD as evidence of the publisher's more active role in English lexicography. Besides boasting of publishing this dictionary, over and above the local distribution of Macmillan dictionaries, College Press occupies a prestigious place in the history of Zimbabwean lexicography as the publisher of *Duramazwi reChiShona* (A General Shona Dictionary), *Duramazwi Guru ReChiShona* (An Advanced Shona Dictionary) and *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele* (A General Ndebele Dictionary), the first monolingual mother-tongue dictionaries in Zimbabwe's indigenous languages. However, having discussed the VSD in previous chapters, College Press may still do better since the localisation of publication was not accompanied by the practical localisation of the dictionary (see 7.4.2.5 for example). Consequently, there is nothing Zimbabwean in the dictionary besides the fact that it was published in Zimbabwe. It remains limited and, in some cases, worse than the other dictionaries discussed in the previous two chapters when it comes to assisting

Zimbabwean learners of English at the primary school level. On that account, the proposed model presented better options to College Press.

While the two publishers generally noted that the proposed model presents a more viable lexicographical support to English acquisition and use in Zimbabwe, challenges were cited which may remain stumbling blocks when it comes to the implementation of the model. Those challenges generally apply to all Zimbabwean publishers in terms of capacity to localise English lexicography. Benson (2001: 107) observes that most English dictionary projects, particularly historical regional dictionaries, have been brought to completion mainly with the support of the OUP. OUP has actually expanded its base into many countries other than Britain, with OUP (SA) being the closest example. The presence of OUP in South Africa, and its rivals in Longman and Macmillan, has definitely enhanced the localisation of English lexicography in that country. If one compares the South African and Zimbabwean situations, it becomes apparent that not only the infrastructural presence of these powerhouses of English lexicography is enough. The host country has to make its lexicographical needs known and convince the publishers that what they are offering in terms of externally produced dictionaries is inadequate. Of course, that can only be done in an environment of a developed dictionary culture where not only lexicographical needs will be acknowledged, but where efforts will be made to address these needs by consulting the available dictionaries, no matter how insufficient their assistance might be. It emerged from the workshops with Longman Zimbabwe and College Press that their highest decision-making bodies will support the localisation of English lexicography when they have been convinced that more user-friendly dictionaries for Zimbabweans may not only be produced, but that they will also be purchased, which is currently not the case with the available dictionaries. This presupposes a dictionary culture, or clear efforts of establishing such a culture as the acknowledgement in South Africa that dictionaries have a role in the implementation of the national language policy that is enshrined in the country's constitution that was adopted on the brink of Apartheid (Gouws 2003).

7.4.2 Practical localisation of the model

Once the first level of the localisation approach has been reached, the second level, which is even more critical from a lexicographical perspective, will have to ensue to form the nucleus of English lexicography in Zimbabwe. This may be regarded as the practical localisation where decisions on certain activities of lexicographical practice have to ensure that the prospective English dictionaries address the limitations of the existing dictionaries. On this level, it needs to be emphatically expressed that the idea of practical English lexicography in Zimbabwe is not to change the entire perspective of English lexicography. As it has long been acknowledged, "[d]ictionaries have always copied from one another, but no reputable dictionary today would dare take over entire sections of another work and print them verbatim …" (Landau 1989: 296). It is a question of what is copied and the extent to which copying is done. Wholesale copying in lexicography may possibly be explained in commercial terms, just like piracy in the entertainment industry, but it would be foolhardy to explain it in lexicographical terms of solving certain problems that specific users face in specific situations where existing dictionaries fall short. This means that the copying of existing dictionaries to the extent that charges of plagiarism can be laid would be self-defeating. It would be conceding the user-friendliness of existing dictionaries and a dismissal of any existence of lexicographical needs that the new work may cover to better existing dictionaries. In the case of the present study, it would be tantamount to rejecting the need for a lexicographical intervention that is being proposed here. Therefore, the reliance on existing works of English lexicography as a departure point for a localisation approach needs to be clearly articulated to indicate the elements that may be adopted and the elements that may be reformulated as well as those that may be added to give the proposed dictionaries a sharper edge over their predecessors. The VSD is a good example of *what should not be done*. In the following subsections, areas of localisation that may be followed in a bid to provide a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe are illustrated.

7.4.2.1 Localisation through lemma selection

According to Tarp (2000: 198):

> ... the only way to reach a scientific conclusion of what should be included in a dictionary is to base this conclusion on an analysis of the user, the user characteristics, the user situations, the user needs and the corresponding lexicographic functions.

This statement is of utmost importance at the lemma selection stage, but it applies also to the inclusion of other types of lexicographical data. Writing specifically on lemma selection, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 86) assert:

> The lemma selection of a dictionary should be done in accordance with the functions and type of that dictionary. It should be done in such a way that the selection of the lexicon falling within the scope of the dictionary is adequately reflected in the dictionary.

Practicing lexicographers are fully aware of the far-reaching consequences of lemma selection for their final work. This is indicated by statements that have been made regarding the selection of the lexicon covered in most of the dictionaries studied in the previous two chapters. However, some of the information that is supplied in this regard is of little help. It seems to be either motivated by commercial reasons or an act of common practice. For example, the use of corpora and textbooks used in schools are common justifications for the lemmatic scope of the studied dictionaries. Yet the mere fact that most of those corpora, textbooks and schools are confined to Britain or South Africa for dictionaries that are then marketed as international products and sold on the peripheries of those centres of their lemma selection smacks of hypocrisy on the part of the publishers. What is unfortunate is giving an impression that a dictionary whose lemma selection was localised would still remain equally useful even in peripheral areas. Otherwise the localisation of lemma selection especially for school dictionaries is the best way of covering vocabulary needs and other information needs associated with the vocabulary scope that certain learners will encounter or use on a regular basis in their learning. In that case, dedicated corpora such as the one reported by Louw and Jordan (1993) would be useful (see 6.4) and may be of huge help.

As indicated in the previous chapters, localisation of lemma selection will ensure that the underlying principles for the process, such as those cited from Tarp (2000) as well as Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) above, are adhered to. In implementing the proposed model, localisation will afford the learners at the beginner level, for instance, an opportunity to learn words that are peculiarly Zimbabwean, having originated from other Zimbabwean languages, but thus far not included in the existing English dictionaries. It will also be possible to capture a balanced representation of urban and rural life through the lemmatic scope of dictionaries, something which is missing in the beginner's dictionaries imported from Britain. Even at higher levels, the learners will get to learn words, which they will also need to use, that have developed as products of the local culture, history and religion within the mainstream of English communication in the country.

It has to be emphasised that localised lemma selection does not imply that the proposed dictionaries have to include only those words that are of local origin in Zimbabwe. A more general lexical selection may still be used as the point of departure. However, certain words will need to be pruned from the existing English dictionaries and be replaced by those that are relevant in the local learning and communication of the target users.

On another level, localised lemma selection will ensure that Zimbabweans have access to all the relevant vocabulary and information pertaining to that vocabulary regardless of being part of either British or American English. At lower levels, British school dictionaries consciously exclude American forms, a favour that is reciprocated with pleasure by American lexicographers. While British English has been providing the standards in Zimbabwe, the American influence has now been embraced in education. In the workshop that was jointly organised by the CDU and ZIMSEC for English examinations moderators, which the present researcher attended, it was stated that examiners should no longer penalise learners for using American spelling in favour of British forms. Rather, they should only ensure that whatever choices learners make are used consistently. This means that *labor* is now acceptable as long as it will not be interchangeably used with *labour* in the same script. Localisation in terms of lemma selection will imply that both British and American forms, be it in terms of vocabulary or spelling, are included in the proposed dictionaries. Of course,

their lemmatic treatment would differ (see 6.4). This is what will make Zimbabwean school English dictionaries different from both those that are imported from Britain and America.

7.4.2.2 Localisation through paraphrases of meanings

When it comes to the localisation of meanings, the proposed dictionaries should ensure that the paraphrases of meaning are relevant to the target users' worldview and where polisemy exists this should also apply to sense ordering. Following Nakao (1989), Tarp (2008: 187) gives *bathroom* as a good example of a word whose meaning varies with countries and cultures. His observation may apply to Zimbabwe where the idea of a bathroom even varies according to whether one stays in a high density or low density suburb, i.e. the issue of social class. The bathroom would be the same room as the toilet in the former but in the latter there is the luxury of having them separately. For rural kids the idea may even be alien, and the word *toilet* may even have to be learnt for the first time at school. Therefore, a localised explanation will need to ensure that learners, especially at beginners and lower-intermediate levels get optimum meaning information that is not blind to other realities.

The word *ice* is another good example. Ice is generally frozen water. However, the idea of frozen water in Europe is much broader than it is to Zimbabweans due to climatic differences. For learners at a younger age, it would be irrelevant to provide details that refer to ice that forms outside as a result of freezing temperatures. Thus before exposing them to that kind of ice, it would be much better to tell them of ice that is found in the fridge or freezer. This means that the ice that is used to keep food frozen constitutes the primary sense. Space permitting, the sense of ice covering the ground or mountains will have to be given as a secondary sense or perhaps a primary sense in dictionaries for older learners. This is not the case in the existing dictionaries which have been published in a different environment. Therefore, localisation through explanations of meanings will enhance relevance of the supplied information and will ensure that dictionaries are user-friendly.

7.4.2.3 Localisation through exemplification

Just like explanations of meaning, examples in dictionaries need to be relevant. They need to depict typical contextual usage. Again, let us take *ice* as an example of a lemma whose paraphrase of meaning has been supplemented by a lexicographical example. An illustrative example which refers to children playing on ice or ice covering the sea would be irrelevant in Zimbabwe, but the one referring to buying ice in preparation for a party will be more relevant. However, this will depend on the specificity of the paraphrase of meaning. If it is general as in the sense of frozen water, a localised example will certainly have to refer to that frozen water which keeps food or drinks cold.

Related to the same word *ice* would be *Christmas*. While the explanation may be unproblematic for this word, exemplification may need greater care. For example, a sentence relating to going for *ice skating* on Christmas would be spot-on for European target users. On the contrary, for Zimbabweans and Africans in general, Christmas comes in summer. Therefore, an unlocalised example may cause cognitive disturbances to the learner who will find it unusual to go for *ice skating* not only on Christmas but even in winter.

A seemingly simple word like *food* will even require great caution when it comes to exemplification, which seems to be compulsory in beginner's dictionaries. Whatever foodstuffs are mentioned in the example sentence, they need to be those that are known by the users. European or Chinese food would estrange young Zimbabwean learners if it was used as part of a sentence exemplifying the lemma *food* in the same way as foreign food tends to estrange people when they get exposed to it for first time.

Although the use of corpus-based examples was only mentioned in passing in 6.7, it is significant to emphasise the role that local corpora may play as sources of examples that would be integral in the localisation process. Local usage of the language would be reflected and the examples would be relevant to the users. This can contribute to the accomplishment of both cognitive and communication functions of dictionaries. Therefore, while British school dictionaries may provide good models for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe,

examples as data categories will be one area where localisation has to be undertaken.

7.4.2.4 Localisation through bilingual solutions

The Oxford first bilingual dictionaries in South Africa may be regarded as bilingual versions or equivalents of the OVFD and OFD. With OUP being the publisher of the monolingual dictionaries in Britain and the bilingual ones in South Africa, there is no doubt that the dictionary concepts of the OVFD and OFD provided ideas in the conception of the South African bilingual dictionaries. However, one thing that makes the dictionaries South African is the fact that they have been made bilingual, pairing English with the indigenous South African languages. Of course more localisation other than making the dictionaries bilingual took place, especially on the level of lemmatisation to make the dictionaries more relevant to South African learners.

Localisation through bilingual solutions is another approach that may be adopted to implement the proposed model in Zimbabwe. In this case, this means that further to pruning irrelevant words in the lemma stock, redrafting and re-arranging paraphrases of meaning as well as examples, including such data categories as translation equivalents, translated paraphrases of meanings and examples in Shona, Ndebele and other Zimbabwean languages, depending on the level of language learning for which each dictionary will be used, will be a major step in localising some of the dictionaries which currently fall short. The learners will have at their disposal dictionaries which facilitate the acquisition and use of English by exploiting local languages. This may be done on some of the monolingual school dictionaries or the South African bilingual school dictionaries that were studied in the last two chapters, providing copyright issues and collaboration are agreed between foreign and local publishers, as was discussed in 7.4.1. By making Zimbabwean indigenous languages members of the language pairs/sets through bilingual or multilingual solutions, the existing English dictionaries would be significantly turned from being externally-motivated dictionaries to internally-motivated dictionaries. It was noted in 1.2 and 4.4 that one of the major limitations of the existing English dictionaries from the perspective of Zimbabwean users is that they were compiled either to solve the problems that have been experienced or perceived by external members of the community (see Gouws

2005). Sections 5.6 and 6.6 noted that bilingual solutions will go a long way in addressing some of the problems as experienced by Zimbabwean learners of English.

7.4.2.5 Localisation through data in the outer texts

The debate of relevance, which was discussed with respect to paraphrases of meaning and examples, may also be extended to the data contained in the outer texts of dictionaries. In the last two chapters, it was shown that useful data may be presented in the outer texts as help texts, integrated texts and function-adhering texts. If the lexicographical functions and genuine purpose of a dictionary have been well-formulated, it is worth considering whether all the data supplied in the integrated outer texts and function-adhering outer texts are relevant. The study of selected dictionaries published in Britain and South Africa suggests that certain kinds of data in these texts may be subject to localisation in order to make the dictionaries more user-friendly for Zimbabwean English learners.

The children's dictionaries and school dictionaries that were published in Britain clearly reflect on that country as the environment that dictionary users should be familiar with. The middle matter text guiding dictionary users with letter writing in the OPD uses London addresses. The MSD has a text entitled 'Telephone numbers' whereby area codes for London and Cambridge as well as the international dialing code for the UK are given in the examples. Because of using examples that are relevant to Britain in their outer texts, these dictionaries immediately become relevant to the users in that locality. This is a case where something that is good for the British is bad for Zimbabweans, and it is characteristic of several other British dictionaries, including the OALD. In the OALD, a very long list of abbreviations is given in the back matter. Besides what would be standard universal abbreviations such as CV for *curriculum vitae*, D.O.B for *date of birth* and NGO for *non-governmental organisation*, most abbreviations are specifically British or American. South Africans would be forgiven to think that South Africa has been represented when they see SARS in abbreviations outer texts of the OALD, only to learn that it stands for *severe acute respiratory system*. From this one may conclude that not only does the OALD endeavor to assist learners with English but also with general knowledge as packaged

in Britain and America. Since the English learners who are subject of this research primarily learn the language to use it within their country where it is an official language, it becomes clear that the language they learn from this dictionary is distanced from local cultures which have also influenced this language.

The study of outer texts in the South African dictionaries indicates that an effort was made to localise the contents. For instance, immediately after giving an account of the origins of the English language, the LSASD moves on to give a history of South African English in its back matter. Local addresses are used in guides to letter writing while a section of weights and measures uses an example relating to the fact that Kruger National Park covers 20 000 square kilometers. The SAOSSD gives in its back matter a list of South Africa's languages, describes the National Curriculum Statement, phases of education and the constituents of the National Senior Certificate. All these are remarkable efforts of localisation.

In implementing the proposed model, there is need to emulate South African dictionaries in the way they localise the contents of outer texts. The VSD is once again in bad light. The only Zimbabwean word or concept that is used in the dictionary is *Zimbabwe*, firstly in the imprint giving bibliographical details and in the back matter text listing names of all the countries and continents of the world. Besides that, its long list of abbreviations has nothing Zimbabwean at all. Thus to the prospective dictionaries the VSD should be regarded as a mistake not to be repeated. If the dictionary was truly Zimbabwean, it should have given the learners an opportunity to learn, among other things, what ZANU (Zimbabwe African National Union) and ZAPU (Zimbabwe African People's Union) stand for. Outer texts listing Zimbabwean cities, languages, tourist attractions (since Zimbabwe is endowed with several of them, including the Victoria Falls which is among the 'seven wonders of the world'), abbreviations and giving a historical outline of the English language or education system in the country would have been relevant to the target users.

As the initial steps of establishing and developing a dictionary culture for specialised lexicography, some outer texts in the school dictionaries have to list the terms and registers used in specific school subjects (Gouws, Forthcoming). Although the proposed model is mainly concerned with the acquisition and use of English in

Zimbabwe, it should not be restricted to the communicative and cognitive situations associated with the use of English. Where possible, the cognitive dimension of learning other subjects should also be catered for, although that is primarily the task of LSP lexicography, since English is learnt and used even in situations of learning the different subjects. Outer texts provide for such an opportunity where such a function which may not prevail in the main text may be accommodated by means of function-adhering outer texts.

7.5 (Re-) Establishing a dictionary culture

All the things that have been said in the foregoing about making those dictionaries that are relevant to the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe would be to no avail as long as a dictionary culture is not established or re-established[11]. The workshops that were conducted with the various stakeholders involved in the teaching and assessment of English in the country suggested that we should be cautious not to talk of establishing a dictionary culture as if it has never existed before. Veteran teachers and officials from ZIMSEC and CDU recall that dictionaries, together with thesauri and student companions, used to play an important role in Zimbabwean education. Therefore, what we are facing now is not essentially a country without a dictionary culture to look back to. It is a lexicographically lost generation. This generation constitutes the current learners as well as the young teachers and other professionals who are either unaware of the real value of dictionaries or have been accustomed to surviving independent of dictionary use. As in other instances of cultural decay in general, there would always be an older generation, watching helplessly as the young generation succumb to deculturation. All the same, establishing and re-establishing a dictionary culture are equally important and not different tasks for lexicography.

[11] Although Footnote 7 stressed the importance of making dictionaries readily available in Zimbabwe, thorough dictionary education for both teachers and learners would be equally important in order to establish a dictionary culture. The present researcher only realises now how he was once fortunate to be awarded with the NMED at a speech and prize giving day as a Form 1 student. Since no one in the class had ever had a dictionary, that award was not put to optimal use as the dictionary was only used at home. The low societal dictionary culture was a huge impediment.

This section re-assesses the environment in which a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe is being proposed mainly to consider the necessary steps of enhancing the feasibility of the proposed model. Having identified the dictionaries that may be needed and their features as well as how those dictionaries may be made available, the focus is now on how the users may be placed in a better position of dictionary use. Here consideration is given to a number of factors which currently militate against dictionary use. These include curriculum planning with respect to English, lexicographically uninformed teachers and consequently a lexicographically lost generation of learners. The issues that are discussed in the next subsections are drawn from the fieldwork exercises that were undertaken in the country, particularly the model testing workshops.

7.5.1 The English curriculum and assessment

Reference has already been made in the last two chapters to the English syllabi and assessment on various levels of the Zimbabwean education system and implications of these for dictionary use. While it was noted that communicative and cognitive situations exist where learners may benefit from dictionary use, there seems to be no clarity regarding the role of dictionaries. As required at lower levels, the 'O' Level English syllabus states that pupils should be able to:

> … understand and use the different types of reading materials they are likely to meet both inside and outside school, including fiction, poetry, drama, non-fiction, textbooks, reference books (especially dictionaries), magazines, newspapers, instruction manuals and reports… (ZIMSEC 2008-2012: 13).

The mention of dictionaries in the quote above is problematic, not least because it is done in brackets, but for at least two reasons. Firstly, dictionaries should not be placed in one basket with all those 'reading materials' because they are meant to be consulted but not to be read (Béjoint 2000: 10, Tarp 2008: 46). Secondly, while the other listed materials may be read or used to learn something from them, the use of dictionaries is normally motivated by problems encountered while using such materials. Finally and related to the second reason, while understanding and using all the different types of reading materials listed above, perhaps with the exception of manuals, may normally

be an ultimate goal in the learning process, using dictionaries will normally be a means towards understanding the other materials. Consequently, the role of dictionaries in the English curriculum in Zimbabwe is not clearly defined. Coupled with the teaching approaches encouraged by the CDU and those adopted by teachers, the dictionary has become an alien object in the classroom.

It may be recalled that a communicative approach is used for English teaching and learning in Zimbabwe. This has had an impact on the use of dictionaries, as it was resoundingly indicated by officials from ZIMSEC, CDU and, as will be highlighted in the next subsection, teachers. While the previous two chapters identified situations in which learners may benefit from dictionary use, it was argued during the CDU/ZIMSEC workshop that within a communicative approach, learners should be creative and independent language users who can make prompt and correct guesses. This objective is clearly illustrated by one of the compulsory comprehension questions in the English Paper 2 examination where 'O' Level candidates have to give the meanings of five out of eight words based on their contextual usage in the passage. There will normally be other questions such as Question 1 (a) (i) in the November 2010 examination which requires candidates to "[g]ive one word … which means the same as *probability*". Regarding the situation of explaining five words, it may be noted that context may not always be useful to a non-native learner of English, especially when a particular word is being encountered for the first time. Thus to expect a learner to guess already creates a situation where good luck or bad luck may determine the outcome. Then with regard to identifying from the passage the same word as *probability*, the candidate has to know *probability* first and then know all its synonyms which could have been used in the passage. This indicates that there is even a need for dictionary use in the examination. This is not a wild suggestion. Rhodes University in South Africa, University of Leeds and Sheffield University in Britain, for instance, make provision for dictionary use in examinations in their language or examinations policies (Rhodes University Language Policy, The University of Sheffield Examinations Dictionary Approval, The University of Leeds Examinations: Use of Dictionaries in Exams). In Zimbabwe, it would be akin to the practice of carrying texts into the examination venue by candidates for 'A' Level English Literature Paper 3, the one dealing with William Shakespeare, Geoffrey

Chaucer, Andrew Marvell and other famous authors, playwrights and poets. From this perspective, it could be argued that there is nothing wrong even with carrying certain dictionaries for use by candidates in the English examination situations discussed above. However, this may be seen as counter-productive as far as the assessment goals, which include testing vocabulary skills, are concerned.

Nevertheless, CDU and ZIMSEC officials were not convincing in articulating the rationale behind this state of affairs which is marred by a lack of clarity regarding dictionaries. Some of them ended up being unconvinced by the official position as well. To complicate things further, English examiners are encouraged to use dictionaries when marking. This is fair, as it is reasoned that the learners should not be marked wrongly due to the examiners' limitations as far as language knowledge and skills are concerned. Would it also not be fair to ensure that candidates' limitations are overcome by the privilege that is afforded examiners dealing with the same examination? Of course, examination conditions should be somewhat hostile to provide the real test. The English syllabi still need to be elaborated at least regarding the use of dictionaries in everyday learning and teaching of English so that students may be better prepared for the examination situation. Otherwise the communicative approach to language teaching and dictionary use are not necessary mutually exclusive.

7.5.2 Schools and teachers

Writing on strategies of improving dictionary skills and developing a dictionary culture in Ndebele, Hadebe (2004) identified teachers as ideal targets for lexicographical training, arguing that this should be part of teacher training. Hadebe (2004: 91) also observes that the "problem of the lack in the teaching of reference skills is not peculiar to Ndebele, but is common in most languages". This has been confirmed by the present study, whose focus is English lexicography, but of course, still in Zimbabwe. As indicated in 4.2.1, not only dictionary availability is a problem at schools. Many teachers do not own dictionaries while some of those who do neither bring them to school nor use them in their classes. Unlike Mr. Chigwindiri, who is cited in Nomusa's letter quoted in 7.4.1, most teachers are not aware of dictionary

types and dictionary contents, thereby rendering them incompetent ambassadors of dictionary pedagogy among their learners. Mr. Chigwindiri would strike one as a teacher from the Group A schools (private schools), such as Petra Primary School and Petra High School that were visited during this research. At such schools, a dictionary is on the requirements list that is given to a parent once a child has been enrolled. As a village teacher, Mr. Chigwindiri, therefore remains a fictional but ideal teacher. Although the availability of dictionaries for sale in the bookshops and even on the streets improved between 2009 and 2011, the situation at schools remained basically the same. Textbooks remained a priority as schools attempt to improve the student/textbook ratio. Of the six township schools where the proposed model was tested, only one school indicated having included dictionaries in their recent textbook order. However, the order had neither specified dictionary titles nor types. The general argument for a communicative approach with its associated creativity, independence of learners and guessing was also resonant. Ironically, teachers conceded that whenever this approach fails, the learners had to depend on them, this despite their own limitations. The dependency syndrome lives on, albeit with no guarantees of the dependants benefiting all the time.

The teachers are also generally unaware that the syllabi make reference to dictionaries, not to mention that some of the schools in Bulawayo do not have copies of the syllabi. They are, however, fully aware that for the purposes of everyday teaching of English as well as regular local examinations before the ultimate 'O' Level examinations, candidates should not rely on dictionaries. The major concern then becomes teaching for the examination, which unfortunately results in a teaching approach that is bemoaned by both ZIMSEC and CDU:

> The teaching of English language, particularly at the upper secondary level, often has more testing than teaching. Teachers assign a complete comprehension or composition exercise, mark the answers right or wrong, then assign another similar exercise, threatening the pupils that they must do better or else! The teachers do not explain the reasons for the answers, nor teach pupils strategies to use to try to do better in the future. How difficult it must be for pupils to learn and improve when they only spend their time in making yet more mistakes! (ZIMSEC 2008-2012: 7).

The lack of creativity from teachers in assisting English learners include their inability to adopt dictionaries as teaching and learning tools which may overcome some of the oft-repeated mistakes. The teachers opt for a drill method hoping that come examination time the learners would have mastered the skills that would be tested. Dictionary use is not one of the tested skills, which include some aspects of oral communication such as pronunciation, which has consequently been relegated from focal areas of English teaching (Kadenge et al 2009).

In spite of the poor dictionary culture that prevails in schools, particularly among teachers, the workshops indicated that not all is lost providing the environment becomes conducive. This is not a matter of schools being supplied with dictionaries, which charity and non-governmental organisations have done to result in an odd one or two copies of the OALD or the MED being kept in the office of the headmaster or English subject departmental head. It has to do with the entire approach to teaching of English and the role of dictionaries. At both primary and secondary schools, the teachers who participated in the workshops generally improved their perceptions of dictionaries. It emerged that most of them have the potential to be like Mr. Chigwindiri who has definitely inspired Nomusa because of his approach to language teaching, predicated on twin processes of developing a dictionary culture and reading culture at the same time. Some of the workshop evaluations given by teachers have been included in Appendix 4.

7.5.3 Learners

Dictionary culture remains very poor among Zimbabwean learners, as indicated in Chapter Four. However, as it stands, some learners risk being penalised by using dictionaries without permission from the teachers. Should there be a review of the syllabi which takes into account the role of dictionaries, as well as more teachers like Mr. Chigwindiri, then there will be more learners like Nomusa. Learners need guidance and encouragement especially from teachers. They will rarely resist changes that are implemented by teachers, as long as the changes improve performance. With

teachers generally affirming the need for an intervention in the acquisition of English, and with most of them recognising the potential that a dictionary possesses, dictionary use and dictionary culture are certain to improve. Once the learners are granted that permission and taught how to use dictionaries appropriately, which is cited as the reason why some teachers prohibit dictionary use, some of the problems they encounter in English acquisition and use will be a by-gone. Given the analysis of user situations, user needs and possible lexicographical assistance regarding English in Zimbabwe in the last two chapters, not more can be said on this.

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter has summarised and consolidated a proposed model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. It also provided a critical account of the observations that were made when the model was tested with various stakeholders who are involved in the teaching and testing of English in the country. Key among these is that the proposed model is feasible. Having analysed the situations in which dictionaries may be of enormous value regarding English in the previous two chapters, it was the main purpose of this chapter to assess the rigidity of the would-be impediments in the implementation of the model. As far as this is concerned, it emerged that most of the individuals concerned were able to sincerely appreciate the benefits that the intervention may present, not to mention the critical feedback which were incorporated to improve the model (see Appendix 2).

As Napoleon Hill puts it, "ideas are the beginning points of all fortunes" (Hill 1994: 6). While this quote has always been interpreted as being about money, it may be relevant to the idea of English lexicography in Zimbabwe. The ideas raised through the testing of the proposed model need to be regarded as the departure points in pursuit of lexicographical solutions for some problems encountered in the acquisition and use of English. Observing that education officials cannot adequately explain why they discourage dictionary use as part of everyday teaching and learning, their appreciation of the proposed ideas, the fact that dictionaries are playing an active role in private schools where results are obviously better and that dictionaries were previously highly regarded in English acquisition, as well as that publishers are fully

aware of the win-win situation that may result from the localisation of English school dictionaries, there are enough reasons for optimism regarding the proposed lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in the country.

CHAPTER EIGHT

GENERAL CONCLUSION

8.0 Introduction

The purpose of this final chapter is to provide a summary of the research and reflect on the statement of the problem around which the main argument was developed. The general relationship between language and lexicography will be considered and applied to the situation surrounding English and lexicography in Zimbabwe. Then the insights from the theory of learners' lexicography, on which the present study has been based, as well as those from the general theory of lexicography, which have been applied in addressing questions related to the feasibility of the proposed model, are summarised. This leads to a review of the statement of the problem in a way that reflects on the principal argument of the thesis, as well as the implications of the research for Zimbabwean lexicography. In that connection, recommendations for further research will be made.

8.1 Language and lexicography

This dissertation has been written in the spirit that lexicography ought to be much more than linguistic ideology of either the compiler or the dictionary user. As Tarp (2004: 230) puts it, "lexicography is not fanatic or extremist". It could be a specific language that is the subject of lexicographical treatment in a dictionary, but if that dictionary has to be a practical instrument with regard to that language, certain extra-linguistic considerations have to be made. Such considerations are the very essence of lexicography. They transcend issues of language ownership, loyalty and other such attitudes. It is from that perspective that the idea of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe has been conceived.

Svensén (1993: 1) defines lexicography as "a branch of applied linguistics which consists in observing, collecting, selecting, and describing units from the stock of words and word combinations in one or more languages". While linguistics can be clearly defined as the scientific study of language, understanding applied linguistics is

quite problematic. The OALD states that applied linguistics is "the scientific study of language as it relates to practical problems, in areas such as teaching and dealing with speech problems". "Quite what is applied by whom and to what, and with what results, is not made clear" (Hartmann 2001: 32).

Apart from Svensén's definition of lexicography in the preceding paragraph, it may be asked how relevant the subsequent statements are with regard to the present research. The relevance broadly lies in that not all academic discussions of language, i.e. linguistic discussions, make mention of lexicography, although the opposite happens in lexicographical discussions. This has resulted in a relationship that is not symbiotic, which Béjoint (2000: 169) aptly summarises when he states that:

> Lexicographers have always been linguists of a sort, but they have tended to be considered as non-linguists, and to be rejected by the academic world of linguistics.

Then it certainly has to be asked how relevant the OALD's explanation of applied linguistics is to lexicography, the answer of which will be that it may or may not be relevant at all, depending on the focus of the lexicographical work or discussion. While linguists have never been in doubt regarding their object of study, it appears as if lexicographers, or at least some of them, are not always clear with theirs. As they produce dictionaries, of course applying, where relevant, linguistic theory or elements thereof, they assume that they are doing service to linguistics or specific languages rather than the language users who are the potential dictionary users. This is the identity crisis of lexicography that is alluded to by Tarp (2009b).

The research that is being summarised in this chapter is a lexicographical research of a language that is mainly acquired as an additional language in that particular country. A flash-back reflection on the pertinent issues in this regard will be made in the next section. Here it has to be noted that, with English being not just an additional language but also a language of foreign origin in Zimbabwe, the lexicographical history of this language in its geographical motherland and the subsequent developments in other countries have a bearing on the present research. This reflection was made as part of the literature review in 1.7 and also with regard to the development of the general-purpose dictionary, regional or historical dictionaries and learner's dictionaries in the language in 4.4.1. It may be noted that at those various

stages of the development of English lexicography, the language question has ever been present and, in some cases, in excessive dosages for the health of lexicography. Perhaps it was necessary in some cases, but the outcomes have tended to be unfortunate.

Section 1.7 underlined the significance of Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* and the philosophy that informed its production as presented in the plan of the dictionary (Johnson 1747). The influence of Johnson's strong prescriptive approach manifests itself in later English dictionaries (Mugglestone 2005) and, quite often, results in ethnocentric dictionaries (Benson 2001). Even learners' dictionaries were not spared, as shown with regard to paraphrases of meaning in Section 6.5 (cf. Tomaszczyk 1983) and data contained in the outer texts of most English dictionaries compiled in Britain regardless of their target users. From that end, the relationship between language and lexicography, especially as it has manifested itself in Britain, makes the claim of lexicography as part of linguistics, the so-called applied linguistics, relevant for discussion.

Johnson would use the first person pronoun *our* in talking about the language, which would translate into 'our dictionary'. That is fair enough, given that English was probably yet to become an international language. It was at a time when it was necessary to establish the standard of English as a language (cf. Gallardo 1980). However, the same attitude continues to prevail in contemporary scholarship, as can be seen from the title of Bailey (1987a), a book that ironically acknowledges the global nature of English, and some contributions in the book including Bailey (1987). McArthur (1998) is very critical of such tendencies. In a chapter entitled "The power of words: pressure, prejudice and politics in our vocabularies and dictionaries," he recalls how he felt frustrated and alienated after reading *The Story of Language* (Barber 1964) in which English, not just language, is the subject. His source of frustration is not just that the book is about English, but the fact that English is treated as the property of certain people. He clearly illustrates this in another chapter entitled 'Problems of purism and usage in editing *English Today*' in which unimpressed readers of the journal interpreted his acceptance of variation in English as the deterioration of "[o]ur language … a precious heritage" (McArthur 1998: 100). Just like the language itself, English dictionaries have continued to develop mainly as the

heritage of Britain, regardless of their types and users. This has unfortunately made some dictionaries, especially learners' dictionaries, less user-friendly to English-additional language learners.

It is unfortunate when nationalist sentiments and/or linguistic ideologies of the lexicographer dominate dictionaries to such an extent that lexicographical practice loses sight of the user perspective. The user perspective of English lexicography is very complex. Since English now serves as a global language, not just for global issues but also as an official language even in matters of national concern, it follows that English lexicography needed to be redirected in order to satisfy the needs of non-native speakers in various parts of the globe. In that regard, the innovations of Albert Sydney Hornby, Harold Palmer and Michael West were appreciated in the previous chapters. There were already some important innovations in America by Edward Lee Thorndike to the effect that children and young learners required different kinds of lexicographical assistance in as much as they had different problems and competences from adults, which was also shown in Chapter Five. However, as the new branch of lexicography, learners' lexicography has developed as if it is meant to serve the interests of Britain and America through English teaching, a practice that would be symptomatic of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson 1992). Its centre has largely remained Anglo-American, far removed from the peripheries where English is being learnt and taught as an additional language[12]. This has not only resulted in the dictionaries having certain limitations at the level of macrostructure, microstructure or frame structure in terms of their contents. Also, some societies have not had access to all the relevant dictionaries. With the commercial dimension taking its toll, mainly those dictionaries that have been regarded as commercially viable have been aggressively marketed. These have tended to be the advanced dictionaries.

Accordingly, additional language learners in some parts of the world remain unfamiliar with English dictionaries, or at least those that are quite relevant to their

[12] There are other countries where English is learnt as an additional language, as in Zimbabwe, which, however, have already progressed from simply being consumers of English learners' dictionaries to being producers as well. In such countries, e.g. Japan, internally-motivated English learners' dictionaries now exist following localisation strategies such as the provision of bilingual solutions to address some problems experienced by the learners.

situations. As it will be recalled, Zimbabwe is one good case in point, thereby necessitating the proposed lexicographical intervention.

8.2 English and lexicography in Zimbabwe

While the sense of language loyalty and ownership in Britain may be hampering the growth of English lexicography as a professional enterprise that no longer needs to serve the interests of Britain in the same way as it would initially do when Johnson and his contemporaries conceptualised the *Dictionary of the English Language*, the opposite may be true in the former British colonies. So heavy is the burden of the history through which English was imposed as a colonial language. It is a historical fact that the language played its part as a proxy of colonialism. It is also true that the advantages and disadvantages associated with language competences continue to be such that those who are competent in English are in a better position than those who are incompetent, as it were in the past. In a country which is still trying to fully realise itself after independence, it then becomes normal to associate most of the problems with the previous order and what was not done to redress it. In language planning scholarship, the focus is thus on the impeding nature of English to those who are not competent in the language and the fact that what has been regarded as the real solution during the struggle against colonialism, i.e. the status elevation of indigenous languages, has not been fully realised. This has translated into a situation in which, while lexicography was identified as one professional source of solutions to Zimbabwe's problems (NLPAP 1998: 44), the subsequent practice has had to prioritise correcting the colonial imbalances of the marginalisation and underdevelopment of indigenous African languages. English lexicography, not just practice but also research, falls down the priority order despite clear evidence from the country's language practices that English is set to remain one of the country's important languages. There is, therefore, no sense of immediate responsibility regarding English lexicography and other professional language practices which may address some of the problems associated with the language.

In the light of the above, the following lexicographically-relevant concerns have been noted:

- Lack of knowledge about dictionary use with regard to English;
- Lack of knowledge regarding the types and titles of dictionaries that are available for use by Zimbabweans and their appropriateness in respect to certain types of users and situations (see Chapter Four);
- Unclearly defined role of dictionaries in the learning and teaching of English as a school subject and language of instruction in the school syllabi (see 7.5.1);
- Lack of awareness from teachers on the role of dictionaries in the school curriculum (see 4.3.3 and 7.5.2);
- Discouragement of dictionary use even in situations where it does more good than harm (see 7.5.1 and 7.5.2);
- Lack of dictionary using skills and a poor dictionary culture among both teachers and learners (see 4.3.3, 7.5.1 and 7.5.2);
- Distribution of externally-motivated and user-unfriendly English dictionaries by local publishers (see 4.3.5 and 7.4.1);
- Dominance of advanced learners' dictionaries even at primary schools (see 4.3.3);
- The existence of dictionaries and optional ownership of dictionaries as nice-to-haves rather than utility tools (4.3.3).

When combined, the above concerns constitute the problem that was stated in Section 1.3, i.e. that while English plays an important role as Zimbabwe's sole official language, dictionaries do not play a part in the relevant situations because they are either unknown or they have been taken for granted. It was mainly the use of the learners' theory of lexicography that was employed to concretise in lexicographical terms Zimbabweans as potential users of English dictionaries, their situations with regard to English, their lexicographical needs as well as solutions to those needs. When put into the perspective of low pass-rate and subsequent incompetence of the

majority of Zimbabweans in this language which serves in high status domains, this then affirmed the need for a lexicographical intervention. Together with Wiegand's general theory of lexicography, the theory of learners' lexicography was also used in the formulation of the proposed model.

8.3 The theory of learner's lexicography and the proposed model

The theory of learners' lexicography, formulated by Tarp (2004; 2004a; 2008) within the context of the lexicographical function theory (see 3.3 and 3.4), was mainly used in this study. Through the use of the theory, the dissertation was able to:

- characterise Zimbabweans as English learners and potential users of English dictionaries (see 4.1);

- dissect the situations in which Zimbabweans, with special reference to English beginners and intermediate learners, may have lexicographically-relevant problems in their learning and/or use of the language (see 5.1 and 6.1);
- identify the information needs of English beginners and intermediate learners with regard to this language in the specified situations (see 5.2 and 6.2);
- critique selected English dictionaries in order to determine their strengths, potential and limitations with regard to needs of Zimbabwean English beginners and intermediate learners. This was done by means of evaluating the inclusion of certain data categories and use of lexicographical structures to present the relevant data.

The employment of the theory of learners' lexicography did not only help to affirm the need of a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. It was also useful in the formulation of a model that represents such an intervention and also in the demonstration of the worthiness of such an intervention. The following types of dictionaries targeted at English learners through the education system were proposed and motivated (see 7.2):

- elementary school dictionaries
- junior primary school dictionaries
- senior primary school dictionaries
- junior secondary school dictionaries
- senior secondary school dictionaries

The proposition of all those types of dictionaries was based on the observation that although all the potential users are Zimbabweans, their situations of learning English are different according to age and the level of education. Thus the problems, needs and solutions should also be different, as demonstrated in terms of the relevance of specific data types in the studied dictionaries. It was also found to be necessary to emphasise that such an intervention will need to be localised in order to overcome some limitations in the existing dictionaries or to enhance their relevance, given that some of the existing dictionaries are not necessarily of poor quality but not specifically produced with Zimbabwean learners in mind. On a practical level, the following areas are subject to localisation:

- the inclusion of lexical items that are of immediate relevance, e.g. the use of dedicated corpora as a dictionary basis (see 7.4.2.1);
- the formulation of linguistically and stylistically accessible paraphrases of meaning that are also culturally relevant (see 7.4.2.2);
- the formulation of culturally-relevant illustrative examples (see 7.4.2.3);
- the provision of translation equivalents and other data categories in the indigenous languages of Zimbabwe in order to provide bi-/multilingual lexicographical solutions to the learners who may not be competent enough to use exclusive monolingual solutions (see 7.4.2.4);
- the use of dictionary structures in accordance with the lexicographical functions of dictionaries, e.g. the inclusion of data that is relevant to the linguistic, educational and cultural needs of the target users (see 7.4.2.5).

These lexicographical issues were identified as central not only in developing the proposed model but also in ensuring that such a model will constitute internally-motivated dictionaries. Accordingly, it was argued that a more pro-active approach to English lexicography will be needed in Zimbabwe rather than the passive consumption of externally-motivated dictionaries. This raised questions of the feasibility of the model, most of which could be answered using ideas from Wiegand's (1984) general theory of lexicography.

8.4 The general theory of lexicography and the proposed model

It was noted in Chapter Three that Wiegand's (1984) general theory of lexicography and the lexicographical function theory, on the basis of which the learners' theory of lexicography that was used, share two basic postulates. These are:

- lexicography is not a branch of linguistics, which the lexicographical function theory took further to affirm that it is a fully-fledged independent discipline

- dictionaries, the most recognised lexicographical products, are utility tools with each having a genuine purpose

Notwithstanding the differences between the two theories (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003), it was reasoned that these shared basic postulates are enough for their complementary use in this study, but it is not necessary to repeat a demonstration of how similar insights that were drawn from both theories were used. Here a summary of those insights that clearly emerge from Wiegand's general theory with more prominence will be summarised. Perhaps the strength of the general theory lies in the theory of organisation which is one of its sections. This element is pertinent in a research such as the present one which considers a lexicographical intervention in a language which is currently not regarded as a major responsibility of local scholarship and professional practice. In this respect, it was important to consider questions related to the feasibility of the proposed model, such as the following:

- Who is going to compile the proposed dictionaries?

- Who is going to publish the proposed dictionaries?

It has to be acknowledged that the dissertation did address the first question but in a general way and that some answers to the second question also address the first question. Firstly, it was suggested that the institutional localisation of English lexicography in Zimbabwe, as can be emulated from South Africa, will be an important step towards the realisation of the proposed model (7.4.1). This will mean that dictionaries that are meant to facilitate the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe will have to be considered as part of the country's primary comprehensive lexicographical process. Then a secondary comprehensive lexicographical process may start with the identification of the dictionaries in the proposed model for English lexicography. For now it does not matter much who will compile the dictionaries, as long as those people will be provided with the necessary training to produce user-friendly dictionaries.

Secondly, with regard to the second question, two local publishers, namely Longman Zimbabwe and College Press, were identified as potential key role players (see 4.3.5 and 7.4.1). The examination of their previous experience and present role in Zimbabwean lexicography and the testing of the proposed model with them clearly indicated that with the support of their parent companies, namely Longman International/Pearson Education and Macmillan respectively, they will be more than capable to carry out the necessary tasks, providing the necessary conditions for the development of English lexicography as a commercial enterprise and dictionary use as a cultural practice are sufficiently developed (see 7.5). In that connection, other potential role players such as the CDU, ZIMSEC and teachers were considered in the research (see 7.5). The point of departure should be creating awareness. In that regard, metalexicography in Zimbabwe needs to expand its scope in order to open up the necessary space for the expansion of lexicographical practice and dictionary use. With more research that will create more awareness with regard to the proposed lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English, it should be possible to get the necessary support and goodwill, which will not be a benefit for English lexicography but for Zimbabweans who have to learn and use this language.

8.5 Review of statement of the problem

As indicated in 8.2, the issues that were summarised in that section are some of the specific issues that constitute the problem statement that was articulated in 1.3. This section reviews the statement of the problem in the light of the subsequent findings of the research. In a way, the section seeks to indicate the extent to which the research addressed the statement of the problem and achieved its objectives that were outlined in Section 1.4. In short, this research successfully managed to accomplish the following:

- characterise Zimbabweans as English learners and, in turn, potential users of English dictionaries;
- analyse the lexicographically-relevant situations of the acquisition of English and its use by Zimbabweans, especially within the education sector;
- identify some of the lexicographical needs of Zimbabweans learning and using English within the education sector;
- critique some existing dictionaries in view of the lexicographical needs of Zimbabwean English beginners and intermediate learners;
- demonstrate how some dictionaries could have been more user-friendly to English learners in general and how they can be localised and made more relevant to Zimbabwean learners;
- overview dictionary culture in Zimbabwe beyond the use of mother-tongue dictionaries in Shona and Ndebele;
- formulate and motivate a model that can provide an intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe, with emphasis on beginner and intermediate levels;
- engage potential key role-players in the implementation of the proposed model.

In the light of the above, it may be claimed that in its ground-breaking endeavour, the study has, to a large extent, addressed the stated problem by putting together

knowledge that may see Zimbabwean lexicography expanding its scope to include English, the country's sole official language.

8.6 Recommendations for further research

In spite of the above, the present study was in no way without challenges and therefore without limitations after its completion. Perhaps the greatest limitation is that the potential users who were central to the discussion, i.e. English beginners and intermediate learners, were not much involved during the research. It was only during the preliminary fieldwork that was conducted by the research assistant that focus-group discussions involved learners (see Section 2.3). Perhaps it would have been more insightful to keep the learners involved during the development and testing of the proposed model to ensure that the proposed dictionaries may be conceived based on the evidence of user needs and skills observed from real situations of English learning and usage. However, this would have been a more time-consuming effort for such a pioneering work in the area of English lexicography in Zimbabwe. Besides, the so-called real situations of dictionary use would not be that real in many cases, given that dictionary culture is generally low among these learners. It is, therefore proposed that future research look into the following areas:

- the use of existing dictionaries, where they are used, and its success or limitations, e.g. in the former Group A schools, universities and other situations of advanced learners who display a reasonable dictionary using culture;
- the real level of dictionary skills among learners using existing dictionaries in those schools where dictionaries are minimally used;
- the real potential of each of the proposed dictionaries in addressing the identified needs of specific users in the specific situations of language learning and use.

8.7 Conclusion

In concluding this dissertation, the notion of *intervention* which is central to the title of the work is revisited. Intervention implies that there is a problematic situation. In the case of this research, intervention is predicated on the situation whereby the country's sole official language is not competently spoken by the majority of the people. The school system, which has been tasked with the responsibility of producing Zimbabweans who are adequately competent in this language, is relatively unsuccessful. The 33% national pass rate and less than 10% achieved by some schools (see 1.1.2.4 and 2.8) are not impressive. Although we are confident, as highlighted in the preceding sections of this concluding chapter, that the lexicographical intervention may go a long way in addressing some of the problems, it was noted from the outset (see 1.1.2.4) that the focus was going to be on the lexicographically-relevant problems. This dissertation does not proclaim to be messianic as far as language problems associated with English in Zimbabwe, or at least its acquisition and use within the education sector, are concerned. There are no doubts that it is a worthy intervention, given that there have not been many proposals besides the status elevation of indigenous languages. Indeed, a lexicographical intervention would be much better than the 'bricklayer' intervention that was described in Section 1.1.2.4.

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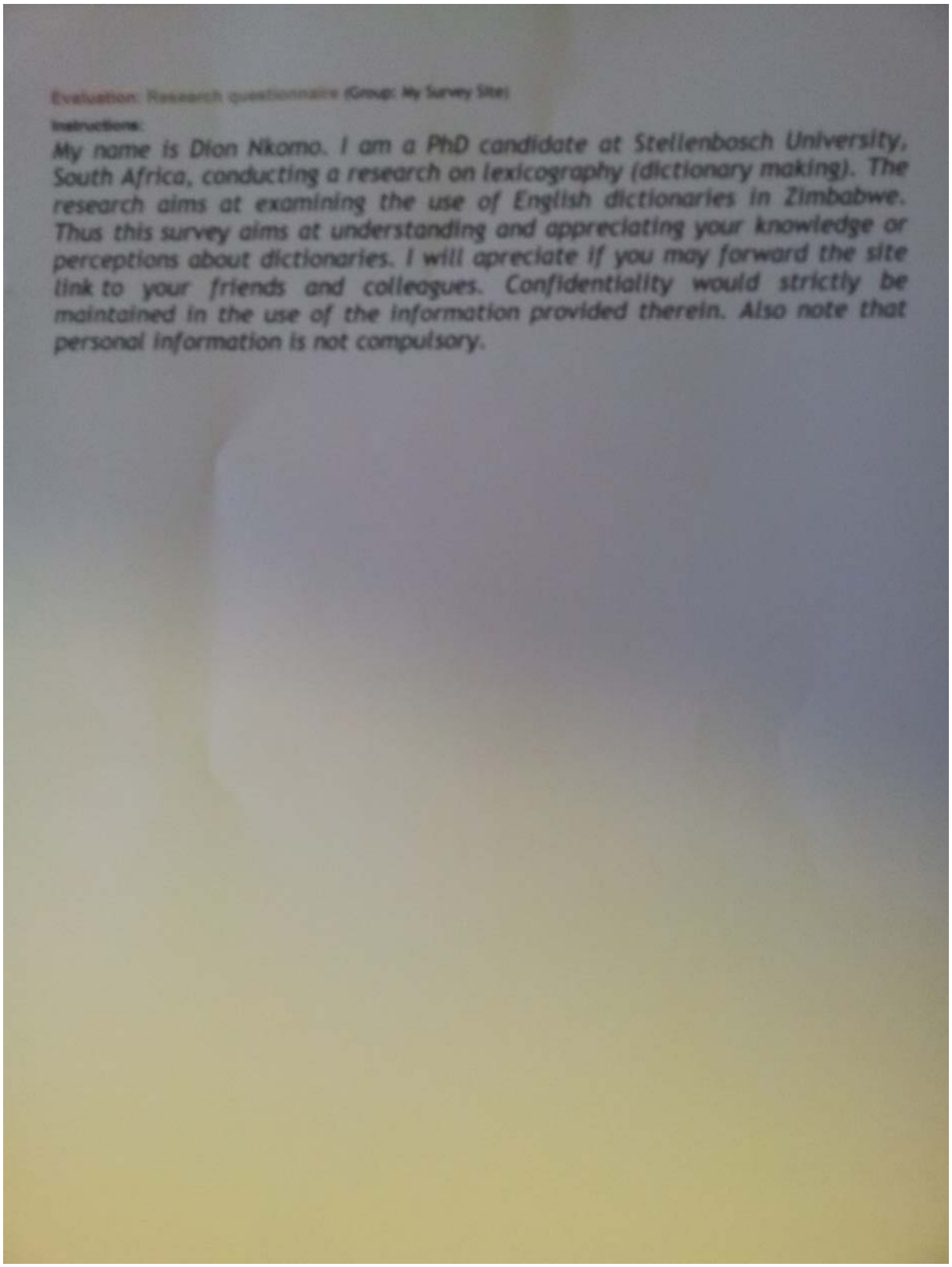
APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE



Group/Course Items:

1. Name:

2. Profession

3. What is your understanding of a dictionary?

4. Do you think a dictionary is important?

Yes ○ No ○

5. Why?

6. Do you use a dictionary?

Yes ○ No ○

7. How frequently do you use a dictionary?

Never ○ Monthly ○ Fortnightly ○ Weekly ○ Daily ○

8. What do you use a dictionary for?

9. Do you benefit from using a dictionary?

Yes ○ No ○

10. Do you face problems when using a dictionary? If yes, please explain in the "Add comment" box

Yes ○ No ○

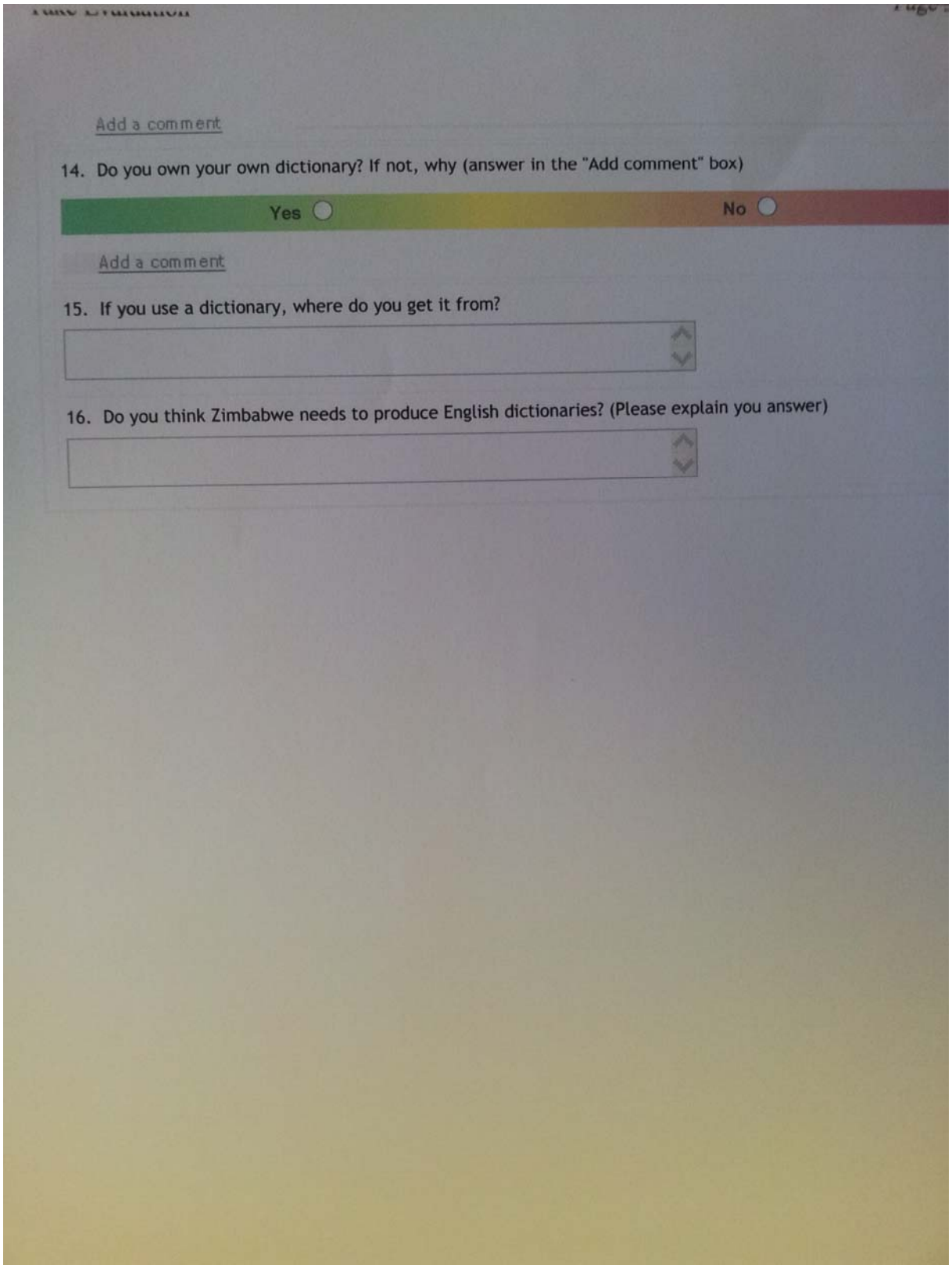
Add a comment

11. What type(s) of dictionary do you know?

12. Name a dictionary or dictionaries that you have used.

13. Do you own a dictionary as a family? If not, why (answer in the "Add comment" box)

Yes ○ No ○



APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY REPORT

Research questionnaire

My Survey Site

Results of survey

Started: 05 April 2010

Ended: 21 May 2010

Response rate: 46 / --

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN
IYUNIVESITHI YASEKAPA • UNIVERSITEIT VAN KAAPSTAD

Vula Online Survey

Research Questionnaire

Introduction

My name is Dion Nkomo. I am a PhD candidate at Stellenbosch University, South Africa, conducting a research on lexicography (dictionary making). The research aims at examining the use of English dictionaries in Zimbabwe. Thus the survey aims at understanding and appreciating your knowledge or perceptions about dictionaries. I will appreciate if you may forward the site link to your friends and colleagues. Confidentiality would strictly be maintained in the use of the information provided therein. Also note that personal information is compulsory.

As indicated in Chapter Two, the names of the questionnaire-survey participants have been omitted from this report which continues in the next page by listing the professions of the participants.

- UNIVERSITY LECTURER
- Teacher and ARTS DIRECTOR
- Development practitioner/ human rights activist
- UCT programmer
- Legal Practitioner
- Computer Technician/Admin Clerk
- Administration Manager
- Media and Communication
- Research and Assessment Officer
- M&E Specialist
- Univeristy lecturer
- Graduate Student
- P
- Project Officer
- Agricultural researcher
- Researcher
- Sociologist
- Research/Development Economist
- Teacher
- CLASSICIST
- Student and Researcher in Forced Migration
- student/lecturer
- Programme Officer
- Development worker, lecturer, artist.
- Lecturer, Department of Linguistics, University of the Witwatersrand
- PhD Student in English Studies
- student
- Language researcher
- Teaching
- Chemist
- teacher

3. What is your understanding of a dictionary?

- A publication that is a has a glossary of terms that gives meaning of words and their root formation
- A book that explains meanings of words and guides you towards proper pronunciation
- an important documents that gives meaning of words (including technical names), and phrases. They give history of the words and thier pronounciation. They give word alternative - synonyms
- A collection of explanations for all known words and terms in a language
- It is a wordbook, a collection of words listed in oftenly in alphabetical order. It may be monolingual or multilingual. The following information may be supplied on each of the listed words:
  usage
  definition
  etymology
  phonetics, pronunciation
  the standard spelling and the standard word in cases where there are many varieties
- Basically, it is a reference book which lists words and their meanings. The dictionary has historically developed from a mere glossary list to contemporary, more linguistically informative reference works. Beyond meaning, they now cover phonetic information, phonological information (for tonal languages), detailed morphological description and semantics all of which is theoretically based.
- It is a resource that enables us get meanings of words and expressions, its a reference point.
- A book that attempts to explain the meanings of words as used within a specified setting.
- Word explanation, pronunciation, proper spelling and at times root of the word.
- Defines words and gives standard pronunciation.
- collection of words and their meanings
- A book that explains the meanings of words. Can be in one language or even two. can be physical or online
- it is a book that assists one in understanding the various meanings, pronounciations, origins of words, synonyms and their use in a sentence. This includes issues of grammar etc.
- Abook with words, their meanings and how they are used.
- A book that one consults to get meanings of words, to check spellings, usages of a particular word in context, the part of speech of a word, etc.
- IT IS A REFERENCE ITEM (AVOIDING BOOK BECAUSE IT COMES IN VARIOUS MEDIA) THAT PROVIDES COMMENTARY ON FORMAL, SEMANTIC AND PRAGMATIC ASPECTS OF THE LEXICON OF A PARTICULAR LANGUAGE OR PROVIDES EQUIVALENTS OF WORDS IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE (S) FROM THE SOURCE LANGUAGE(S).
- A book that explains the meaning of words and in some

cases how they should be pronced and how they are structured.Its a book of meaning

- ??????? a book that helps to understand new words and various meanings of words independent of the application
- defines words
- its that huge volume of pages that contains the meaning of words and the context of their use in conversations
- It's a media that helps find spellings, synonyms, antonyms of given words and how words are pronounced
- your question is vague..you probable want to know what peopl understand to be the use of dictionaries or why dictionaries are important
- Reference book with explanations of words listed in alphabetic order
- It is a instrument that shares the meaning and sometimes pronunciation of particular words.
- It is a book which gives meaning,types and pronunciation of words.
- A language reference source for understanding and interpretation of language terms and understanding their usage
- A reference book for spellings and word meanings, and (sometimes) usage
- Its a book that you consult when u want find meaning to complex word
- is an instrument that helps define words and terms and enable people to use them properly.
- A BOOK THAT IS USED TO GET PRECISE MEANING OF WORDS
- A tool that is mainly used when searching for word meanings
- Its a book with a collection of words and their possible meaninmgs
- A dictionary is book that contains a corpus of words, linguistic phrases, and cultural terms used by a particular group of people at a particular historical epoch.
- a store of words wit their meanings explained.
- A TEXT THAT EXPLAINS WORDS' MEANINGS
- A repository of information pertaining to a particular language, encompassing things such as meanings of words, pronunciation of words, use of those words and other nuances pertaining to the essence of that particular language
- a book with a collection of words and their meanings, usage and application. They are in alphabetical order
- A book that explains the meaning of words so that they are easily understood.
- a book that defines words, and the different contexts in which a word can be used
- Is a list of words and their meanings. It can be in book form or psychological (mental dictionary). It can be mono, bi or trilingual.
- Primarily it should give denotative and connotative meanings of words that make up a particular language. It should also show how words are pronounced, their origin (in the case of borrowed words), and their usage has changed over time.
- It is an instrument that provides the standard meaning, spelling, word usage, pronunciation of words. It also reflects a peoples' culture and language use. It also provides word class, synonyms and antonyms.
- A book defining words in a language
- A book giving definitions and meanings of words
- Place/book/site where i find definition/meaning/interpretation of words
- a book with a compilation of words that have been alphabeticaly arranged and have been defined

4. Do you think a dictionary is important?

46 answers, mean = 1.00

Yes	100 % (46)
No	0 % (0)

5. Why?

- No one man can command vocabulary with all words and phrases,and diction
- You get to know the actual meanings of different words.You are also guided towards pronouncing similar words with different meanings.
- help to improve one's command of the language, learn new words and use them properly
- Mainly for second language speakers, but generally, it preserves a language and perhaps even a culture
- It gives the information that is listed in 3 above which is of great importance to the users.
  It also documents language in a way, otherwise language would remain abstract. The dictionary is a 'concrete language'.
  It also makes language acquisition easier as it sort of has rule for that particular language usage
- To a lay person it is an important prescriptive book that helps to standardize the correct use and understanding of words.
  To a language practitioner is a linguistic reference work which can cover the whole gamut of linguistics as an enterprise. Modern dictionaries also help us understand certain theoretical frameworks particularly semantic theories.

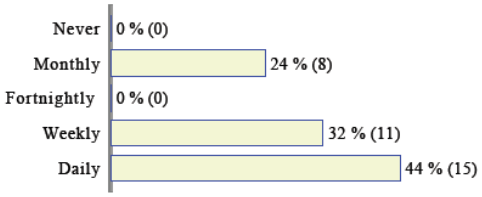
- It explains to the expressions and words whose meanings we do not know.
- We make recourse to them for clarifying word meanins, their usage, etymology, pronounciation and also other extra-diction items like even writing letters, currencies etc
- We can't entirely rely on our intuition or knowledge of the words
- help to maintain consintency in definitions and correct spelling.
- gives better understanding of language, better command and usage
- For the acquisation if knowledge and languages, Proper use of a given language. Clarifies communication
- its assists in understanding the various uses of a word in the mother language and it is vital for second language speakers in assisting them learn a new language.
- It preserves our cultural identity, and language
- It is an empirical record of language as it is used at a particular time. It also functions as a guide book one consults to solve a user's specific needs.
- IN THE COURSE OF COMMUNICATING WE ENCOUNTER CHALLENGES AND SOME OF THESE CHALLENGES ARE COUNTERED THROUGH DICTIONARY USE.
- It serves as reference for meaning to words we use, or words and phrases foreign to us either literally or otherwise.
- Understanding new words and meanings was like accessing the ever expanding world and stepping outside my narrow view of things.
- When playing scrabble and to use words correctly
- it gives a wide variety of words not used in the day to day conversations and also explains the meaning of difficult and simple words.
- it makes learning better
- 3.4.5 to me are silicitingfor the answer to the qustion li have suggested in 3
- Provides specific definitions of words and origins.
- It broadens one's vocabulary and understanding of words.
- it gives you a greater scope of word meanings and widens your corpus
- In all forms of writing one needs a reference book for unclear terms/concepts
- It helps to explain complex words
- it helps people understand the definition of words and terms and allow people to use them correctly.
- ALLOWS US TO EFFECTIVELY COMMUNICATE AND IMPROVES OUR KNOWLDGE WHEN WE USE IT
- because you constantly need to look up words in the dictionary. Often times you will not be sure of certain meanings, pronunciations, word classes etc
- Because it helps me learn about new and or difficult words
- A dictionary is important because, given that society is ever changing in its use of language (with the prospect of loss of some cultural words), words or phrases captured in the dictionary are ossified hence a dictionary will always remain a point of reference should there be disputes over language or word usage. E.g. modern day Ndebele speakers will have no qualms in saying "angikwanisi". The appropriate "angenelisi" would be found in the isiChazamazwi sesiNdebele thus validating the point being made above that we need a dictionary to preserve our culture for we express culture through our language. Remember we construct songs using words and these words form a language and these words can be changed, distorted lost unless there is some form of preservation
- It is a source of material that is fundamental for proficiency and refinement of one's mastery of literary and linguistic devices.
- it helps us find meanings and how to use certain words
- It is important for simplifying words that one does not understand. If I am reading a newspaper or a novel and I come across a word that I do not understand then I look it up and also add it to my vocabulary. It is also important for checking that I have spelt a word correctly
- Very. helps define words new to me. Some even give examples on how the words are used in sentences, the context etc and even supply more information about a word other than just definition
- It is important because it gives the meanings of words. It is more useful for L2/L3 speakers of a language than L1.
- It serves as an important reference source for words and stabilizes language usage.
- because it is a useful source of information on word meaning, spelling, usage, word class, word pronunciation, provides synonyms
- You use it to find meanings and spellings of words you do not understand.
- It helps one understand the meanings of different words, the pronunciations and spellings.
- We sometimes use words incorrectly or in wrong context and a dictionary is a good place to have a unified meaning
- it helps with understanding words that u dnt knw.

6. Do you use a dictionary?

43 answers, mean = 1.02

7. How frequently do you use a dictionary?

34 answers, mean = 3.97



8. What do you use a dictionary for?

- Specialised meaning of words
- To check proper meanings and spellings
- to check for word meanings for both general and technical words and terms in communication and documentation work.
- To search for obscure meaning to words
- To get the definitions of words.
  To get clarity on primary and secondary meanings of the word
  to get proper pronunciation
  To teach language
  to verify proper spelling
  To verify issues that have to do with sense relations
  To improve my vocabulary and language skills
- To check words and their meanings. To analyse certain dictionary types. To understand the morphology of the language in question. To check the pronunciation of certain difficult words.
- Checking meanings of words, expressions and to check how some words are spelt.
- To confirm word meanings, spellings, usage.
- Checking words I'm not sure of in terms of spelling (mostly it's spell-check than word meaning).
- to check spellings
- definition of certain concepts
- To check spelings, meanings and to find alternative word to use in order to improve the quality of my communication
- verifying meaning of words, their use in a sentence etc
- to find meanings of words that I do not understand and how they are used in daily vocabulary
- To check spellings, word categories, synonyms, meanings.
- I USE IT AS A PRIMARY SOURCE IN MY LEXICOGRAPHY LECTURES. I ALSO USE IT TO CHECK SPELLINGS, MEANING, GRAMMAR, SENSE RELATIONS ETC
- I work in different countries and in some cases they use languages that are different from mine so I always refer to a dictionary, for them or for myself.
- to search meanings of new vocabulary or get an original meaning of a word
- defining technical terms and long words
- to check for meanings of unfamiliar words and also to get to know the difficult words and the context of their use. once u know the meaning of a word u get to know the context of use of that word.
- check spellings, meanings of words, how to pronounce words, etc
- Verifying spellings,meanings of words ,origions/derivation of words and pronunciation
- In my line of work, I do a lot of writing, so I need to know the exact meanings of the words that I am using
- When I am confronted with a word I do not know I use the dictionary especially when I am working on reports and some research work
- check on meanings of words
- Occassionally, for looking up definitions and correct usage of terms
- For checking spellings and meanings of words and terms that I am not sure of
- Rarely use. I just go on the internet these days
- -getting definitions of words that i do not understand
  -getting the proper pronunciation of words
  -getting the phonetic transcription of these words as well
- RARELY, GET MEANING OF NEW WORDS AND TO DISTIGUISH BETWEEN TWO RELATED BUT DIFFERENT WORDS
- Looking up meanings pronunciations, word classes etc.
- Rarely. Verifying meanings of words.and learning a new language.
- Regularly. To check on spellings, appropriate word usage, and pronounciations
- Often. ...to check up words that I encounter in my researches and writings
- finding meanings of words
- Most of the time I use an electronic dictionary for spell checking my writing or that of others.
- checking up definations of words new to me and at times

how a word can be used in a sentence although I don't normally use it for this purpose

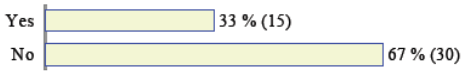
- Rarely. Use the Oxford Dictionary to get the RP/Standard British English pronunciation of English words with complex syllable nuclei.
- Often. To check meanings and spellings.
- Very often. For checking word spelling, word meaning, word usage, synonyms and word class.
- Often. For checking meanings and spellings of words
- For checking up words that I m not sure of as well those that I need to confirm their pronunciation.
- Find/understand meaning/context of a word
- to check new words that i come across

9. Do you benefit from using a dictionary?

45 answers, mean = 1.02

10. Do you face problems when using a dictionary? If yes, please explain in the "Add comment" box

45 answers, mean = 1.67



Comments:

- Some dictionaries, especially the mini dictionaries use circular definitions. This does not bring out meaning clearly.
- The word meanings contextually seem not to be fully catered for, every society uses words in their particular way eg there is Zim English, S.A English etc and so far that breadth and idiosyncracy is yet to be captured.
- toio narrow in terms of conceptual definitions
- In some dictionaries it is very difficult to find what on will be looking for. In other dictionaries, one fails to find some basic vocabulary one would expect in a dictionary of that type/level.
- DICTIONARIES DO NOT HAVE UTILISE STANDARD CONVENTIONS AND HENCE YOU NEED TO BE ACCUSTOMED TO EACH DICTIONARY'S CONVENTIONS AND METALANGUAGE TO MAXIMALLY BENEFIT FROM IT. MORE SO SOME DICTIONARIES DO NOT PROVIDE INFORMATION THAT I WILL BE LOOKING FOR AT A PARTICULAR POINT IN TIME. SOMETIMES EVEN IF THEY DO, YOU ONLY ACCESS THE INFORMATION AFTER YOU HAVE BEEN TOSSED AROUND FROM ARTICLE TO ARTICLE.
- Yes I find that the dictionaries may explain terms using complicated words which will need to be looked up again. Which makes searching for a word quite a mission.
- Sometimes one finds unclear contextual usage of words; at times some definitions of words are too brief to be meaningful; and sometimes the explanations themselves further complicate meaning.
- when technical words are not given
- the fongkong ones. One used to give me a headach, have forgotten its name though but it was red in colour.
- The main problem that I face when using most Shona dictionaries is that they lack phonological details such as tone marking.
- If the dictionary is shallow and I can't find certain words or if it only gives limited meanings. Or if it fails to suggest pronunciation of certain words
- At times in some dictionaries words are defined in a cicular way such that as the reader you remain uniformed

11. What type(s) of dictionary do you know?

- General and Specialised dictionaries
- student's dictionary, business dictionary, dictionary of biblical words, dictionary of scientific terms
- general dictionaries - oxford english, subject specific dictionaries - A Dictionary of food and nutrition.
- Monolingual, bilingual
- learner's
  scholar's
  advanced scholar's dictionary
  encyclopedia
  Specific Dictionaries: Dictionary of Literary Terms, Linguistic Terms, Fashion, Legal words, etc
- English monolingual, Ndebele, Zulu and Shona monolingual, English-Zulu dictionary, Specialized dictionaries in Shona, Ndebele, English, etc.
- monolingual and bilingual
- Not sure if i understand the question- LONGMAN, OXFORD, etc
- General dictionaries and field (trade) dictionaries both in print and online ones.
- phonetics,cross languages
- English Dic
- Mono lingual, Multi lingual, online
- monolingual and bilingual dictionaries
- Oxford English Contemporary Dictionary
- Bilingual, monolingual, trilingual. Thesauri. Dictionaires on

different subject areas, e.g. music, medicine/nursing, names, etc.

- MONOLINGUAL, BILINGUAL, MULTILINGUAL, GENERAL, ADVANCED, COMPREHENSIVE, SCHOLARS, COLLEGE, DESK, POCKET, THESEAURUS, SYNCHRONIC, DIACHRONIC, SPECIALISED, ABRIDGED, UNABRIDGED, SEMI ABRIDGED ETC
- Several.Bilingual,Monolingual,Thesarus,Glosarry etc
- webster, electronic versions...
- Oxford
- i didn't know that they are a variety they all do the same job for me
- I'm not sure of types.
- thesaurus,lexicon,dictionary of literary terms,scientific
- Dictionaries (hard copies and electronic versions) and thesauruses
- New Oxford Dictionary
- English and ShonaDictionary
- General dictionaries
- Oxford
- LANGUAGE DICTIONERY ...SCIENTIFIC DICTIONERY
- General linguistic and terminological dictionaries
- Oxford English dictionary/ Zulu-English Dictionary
- A monolingual dictionary
- General scholars
- IN THE CLASSICS WE HAVE GREEK AND LATIN DICTIONARIES, BUT WE ALSO HAVE DICTIONARIES FOR INDIVIDUAL AUTHORS AND TEXTS, EG, DICTIONARY OF PHILOSOPHICAL GREEK, OR A LEXICON ON ARISTOTLE'S WORKS.
- Pocket dictionary and the more condensed types.
- cambridge advanced learners' dictionary
- Computer dictionary for spell check. Oxford dictionary at home to check when I am reading. I also use a synonyms dictionary to check for substitute words.
- Dont know what you mean by types. But I have use plenty of these English dictionaries and the one and only isichasamazwi and partly because I was involved in its making. But I think you should consider making more of these vernacular ones . I am benefitting for that Venda English book. Get a dictionary as well because me and husband were argiung about words meaning that the Vendas need to know all the vocabulary they have if you know what I mean
- Some are specialized dictionaries like Duramazwi reUrapi neUtano or Duramazwi reMimhanzi while others are general such as Duramazwi Guru reChishona. Some dictionaries are electronic while others are hardcopy and others can be both. As I said, in psycholinguistics they talk of mental dictionaries.
- Monolingual General purpose dictionaries, Specialized Dictionaries, Dictionary of synonyms or antonyms, Learners' or Scholars' dictionaries, Bilingual dictionaries, Enclopedia
- General and specialized terms dictionary. Encyclopaedia
- Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.
- Online, hard copy dictionary
- mcmillan and oxford

12. Name a dictionary or dictionaries that you have used.

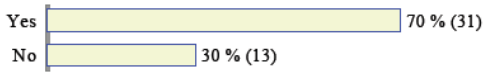
- 1.Classen Dictionary Words and Phrases
  2.Oxford Dictionary
- Collins English Dictionary,Oxford English Dictionary,Oxford Concise Dictionary,The New Choice English Dictionary.
- Oxford Dictionary, isichaza mazwi sesindebele, language and communications dictionary
- The Oxford English dictionary, Isichazamazwi sesiNdebele, some Zulu/English dictionaries,
- Learner's Dictionary
  Advanced scholar's Dictionary
  Encyclopedia
- Cobuild English, Cambridge English, Oxford, South African English, Ndebele, Shona General and Advanced, English-Zulu, Zulu-English dictionaries.
- Bilingual by Doke and Vilakazi, Isichazamazwi SeSindebele
- OXFORD
- Oxford Dictionary, Cambridge and Ndebele/Zulu dictionaries/
- oxford english dictionary
- Oxford.....
- The Oxford English Dictionary
- encyclopedias, linguistic and communications dictionaries etc
- Oxford English Contemporary Dictionary
- Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionaries.
  Various Shona dictionaries.

Various thesauri.

- ISICHAZAMAZWI SESINDEBELE, ISICHAZAMAZWI SEZOMCULO, OXFORD LEARNERS DICTIONARY
- Bilingual,
- Webster, online dictionary and one provided in my laptop (apple)
- I just google and use which ever definition comes up first or second. Most of the time it's Wikipedia, which aint a dictionary but serves that purpose too.
- law dictionary and the Oxford Dictionary and Isichazamazwi our own Ndebele Dictionary
- Not sure but I think the OXford English Dictionary
- vaguish question---Cobuild by Prof Sinclair,dictionar of literary terms
- Collins Oxford Dictionary and Thesaurus
- Contemporay , Oxford, Wikepedia
- oxford dictionary
- English Collins Dictionary
- Oxford English Dictionary, Medical Dictionary
- Oxford
- Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele
  Isichazamazwi sezomculo
  Oxford learner's dictionary
- OXFORD DICTIONERY; CONTEMPARY LANGUAGE DICTIOERY; COLLINS DICTIONERY; STUDENT DICTIONERY
- Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary
- Oxford English Dictionary, Zulu-English Dictionary
- IsiChazimazwi sesiNdebele, English Concise Dictionary, A Dictionary of Political Terms, Oxford Dictionary
- Chambers, Oxford and O=Rogets Thesaurus
- LEXICON PLAUTINIUM (IT'S A DICTIONARY THAT EXPLAINS THE LATIN LANGUAGE OF c. 150bc IN THE CONTEXT OF LATIN COMEDY
- Oxford dictionary
- Oxford, Cambridge dictionaries
- Computer dictionary for spell check. Oxford dictionary at home to check when I am reading. I also use a synonyms dictionary to check for substitute words.
- Oxford, don't know some names but have used some other than the advanced oxford one and these various ones you find on line.
- Some are specialized dictionaries like Duramazwi reUrapi neUtano or Duramazwi reMimhanzi while others are general such as Duramazwi Guru reChishona. Some dictionaries are electronic while others are hardcopy and others can be both. As I said, in psycholinguistics they talk of mental dictionaries.
- The Oxford, Collins, Random House, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
- On-line dictionaries, a variety of oxford and Canon Collins scholars' and learners' dictionaries, Isichazamazwi SezoMculo, Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele, Duramazwi reChiShona, Duramazwi Guru reChiShona, Isichazamazwi Sanamuhla Nangomuso, Isichazamazwi, Scholar's Zulu Dictionary, Englisi-Zulu Dictionary, A Practical Ndebele Dictionary, Duramazwi reMimhanzi, Duramazwi reUrapi neUtano.
- Oxford dictionary, Duramazwi Guru ReChishona, Duramazwi reDudzira murauro nouvaranomwe, Duramazwi routano nourapi, Duramazwi remimhanzi
- Collins Dictionary and Oxford Dictionary
- Wikipedia, Oxford English Dictionary, Medical Dictionary, Dictionary.com
- the engish-zulu one by doke and others

13. Do you own a dictionary as a family? If not, why (answer in the "Add comment" box)

44 answers, mean = 1.30



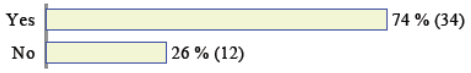
Comments:

- We see no need for it. We speak the same language. Parents help with difficult meanings
- I don't remember any at home, I don't know whether it was resource constraints (buy food instead of books), or lack of knowledge about dictionaries themselves
- I dont think its necessary, i have great command of the languages I speak and write
- Use of on line spell check, and dicrionnaries means I dont have to use a physical one
- Never thought its that necesary.
- We used to have one, but it got lost and we haven't replaced it.
- We don't need it.
- BECAUSE WE DON'T READ AS A FAMILY, SO WE DON'T NEED IT IN THAT CONTEXT
- Because my wife and kids do not seem to have interest in them.

- we have three

14. Do you own your own dictionary? If not, why (answer in the "Add comment" box)

46 answers, mean = 1.26



Comments:

- When i need one, i go online
- I normally check online ones, they are portable. Before the internet, I relied mostly on my knowledge of spellings. Ironical, access to online dictionary has encouraged me to start using them
- Not necessary
- See above comment
- I use google for definitions
- I use the computer dictionary
- I use mostly the internet dictionary which ever comes first
- As we had one as a family, it was not necessary to have an individual dictionary; - in fact, it is not necessary to have many dictionaries for one language; also, a full-strength dictionary is usually heavy and cannot be easily carried around, it is better kept as a family reference book, or accessed in the library or at work.
- I don't need it.
- MANY OF THEM.
- I currently do not require the use of one
- The family one is actually mine. So it is both a family one and mine.
- i find it easy to use the on line dictionary so try to get isichasamazwi on line mfethu

15. If you use a dictionary, where do you get it from?

- library
- Bought several at Bookshops for Home and Office use
- use the ms-word dictionary on my computer too and once in a while would use the library dictionary.
- Internet
- I have one at home. There are others in the Library
- I have all the dictionaries I mentioned in 12.
- My own, from friends and colleagues
- Got my own
- see above
- Online
- online or Lupane State University library
- The company library
- Personal library. Am also a compiler/dictionary editor so most of the dictionaries I use are the ones I have contributed to in one way or another in their compilation.
- I USE MY PERSONAL COPY OR I AT TIMES BORROW FROM FRIENDS OR FROM THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY OR EVEN ACCESS IT ONLINE.
- I bought it
- its part of my laptop package, so maybe thats owning it, right?
- Google
- Bought it from the book shops and i also get from Google.com
- borrow
- (vague question)
  l bought one and its on my desk and l use the one on my laptop or else get one from our library/resource centre
- Have a copy at home. At work, I use an electronic version
- Work, library or internet
- either use internet or my home library
- Personal dictionary
- Library
- Public library
- have a personal one, or get it from the library
- AT HOME
- Both at work and home
- I own one.
- I bought mine.
- Personal dictionary
- I GET MY DICTIONARIES FROM LIBRARIES, BUT MY COLLINS WAS A GIFT FROM MY AUNT
- I do not use a dictionary.
- Owned!
- I bought it
- internet
- My own and from the library
- From my office, Computer and Library.

- On-line and also have hard copies of some of the dictionaries mentioned above which I bought from the bookshops
- Family/personally owned
- I have bought one for myself.
- Online and bought one.
- its my personal copy

16. Do you think Zimbabwe needs to produce English dictionaries? (Please explain you answer)

- Yes , the command of english and the meanings attached to words in Zimbabwe ,i.e the term "WEST" might mean ,countries of the west
- Not necessary. The ones produced in the UK the home of English are fine.Zimbabwe needs dictionaries in locally spoken languages
- yes to help delevop our languages and to effectively use words and phrases..
- We use English as an official language so we need a dictionary as it is also a second language. We r multi-ethnic so we do need a dictionary for the language we converge on
- Yes. English is an L2 in Zimbabwe and so dictionaries will be very handy in improving our competence in the language
- Yes. It is about time that we must admit that Zimbabwe has a variety of English that can be called Zimbabwean English (Kadenge 2009). The use, teaching, pronunciation and understanging to the English spoken and written in Zimbabwe deserves such a dictionary. We also need a bilingual Ndebele-English, maybe much more detailed that the existing Shona-English dictionaries.
- No the ones that are available now are adequate for English we speak in Zimbabwe
- CERTAINLY,TO CATER FOR OUR OWN UNIQUE SENSIBILITIES IN BOTH OUR LOCAL LANGUAGES AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AS WELL
- No- it's not viable from an economic point of view. Who will buy a Zimbabwean dictionary when there is Collins, Oxford, Chicago etc? Besides, 'Zimbabwean English' (if ever there is any) is not different from the mainstream. Only America has developed a 'different' type of English hence American English dictionaries. Economically, Americans can support the publications because of their huge market
- yes.for Zimbabwean English.
- Not necessary, rather indigenous languages dics
- Zimbabwe does need to produce English dictionaries and not reproduce them coz the Zimbabwean English has evolved however they still pretend to speak the British English.
- yes, we have a variety of languages in Matabeleland province. These need lexicons for preservation, education etc. These will assist in teaching these at primary up to tetiary levels etc.
- Yes, it is important to know some words and how they are used in our second languageso we can communicate well and inderstand each other, besides English is the media of Communication in Zimbabwe. It is only proper to make sure we use the language properly.
- Yes. English is the medium of instruction and also the official language, so ithrough dictionary appreciation and use students would improve their command of English. Particularly in the rural areas there is a great need of English dictionaries.
- YES BECAUSE ZIMBABWEAN ENGLISH IS NOT A 'CLONE' OF MAINSTREAM ENGLISH AND HENCE WE HAVE TO PRODUCE DICTIONARIES THAT CAPTURE OUR LINGUISTIC REALITIES. FOR INSTANCE IN OUR LEXICON WE HAVE WORDS THAT ARE UNIQUE TO OUR NATIONAL SETTING, FOR INSTANCE, DWALA, SADZA, SMALL HOUSE, CHIMURENGA, INDABA ETC MORE SO THERE IS THE USE OF ENGLISH EXPRESSIONS THAT IS SO PREVALENT WHICH IN THE EYES OF THE NATIVE SPEAKERS WOULD BE INCORRECT YET FOR US IT PASSES AS NORMAL EG. THE USE OF DOUBLE NEGATIVES SUCH AS IRREGARDLESS AND EXPRESSIONS SUCH AS 'I AM GOING TO SIT AT THE BACKSEAT THAT IS AT THE BACK' ETC
- Yes.Zimbabwe is a typical British former colony and with English as an important langauge it is more than necessary.We however need a multi or bilingual, Dictionary.
- English is a historical fact and part and parcel of our identity, we really need more dictionaries that help people to connect with themselves and with the world. Literacy levels are not as bad and so there is huge need and potential use of dictionaries
- There are enough dictionaries in the world. Inter-native tongue dictionaries would be useful. Also translations too.
- no, we need it in vernacular languages so that our languages are not overtaken and made extinct by the English language... there are enough English dictionaries on seculation and we do not need to produce them in English when our local languages do not have any. we need to promote our local languages by producing them in our local language
- Yes, only if there are people who could educate people on the importance of these books and what they contribute to their education.
- Language is dynamic and words often lose(pejoration) of gain meaning or society develops and popularises concepts that become acceptable in both formal and informan usage as

a results new coinages are borne and words build whose universal meanings ,origions and pronunciation need to be documented so that the become a shared commonality and functional in any cultural setting. Its not Zim only thar need a dictionary but all communities wether am not sure what this question is getting at I would have asked the type of dic needed by a community like zim given its communication needs an literacy levels...not quite confident about your questioning

- I dont think so. We use the UK standard english in Zim, so we should stick to those dictionaries. There are a lot of English words we use which have a definite 'Zimbabwean usage' - but that is not standard, so should not be included in dictionaries.
- Yes they are some words and terms which may be localised to Zimbabwe. They have their unique Zimbabwe meaning.
- yes,we have a different use and understanding of english words
- Not sure
- Yes, to capture some particularities in the usage of certain terms/words; e.g., most dictionary captions that give word usage options tend to use foreign contextual usages, foreign characters and foreign symbols, which are sometimes too exotic to be meaningful to, say, an ordinary dictionary user who is not cosmopolitan. In this case using Zimbabwean/local contexts, characters and images may be more useful and meaningful. For instance, rather than using a dictionary that says 'so and so crossed the Rubicon or Amazon', it may useful to use a dictionary that says 'so ans so crossed the Limpopo or Zambezi' - where "crossed" is the point word. Although the issue of marketing comes into question when local production of dictionaries is considered, this may be overcome by making it a private-state partnership with the knowledge that such dictionaries are part of the nation's culture.
- I don't know.
- Yes, this will help improve the use of English among scholars
- YES. LANGUAGE IS DYNAMIC WE NEED TO CONTINUOUSLY ADD NEW WORDS AND GIVE MEANING, AS WELL AS INFORM. IT WILL BE IMPORTANT FOR THE COUNTRY'S LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND IDENTITY
- Yes, because there are a lot of words that relate to Zimbabwe's material culture that are not found in the dictionaries compiled in Europe. We need to follow the South African example and compile dictionaries that cater for Zimbabwean English. South Africa as an example has dictionaries on South African English which I think are very relevant.
- Yes because words from indigenous languages have found their way into Zimbabwean English
- YES, ONE FOR NDEBELE AND ONE FOR SHONA BECAUSE OUR ENGLISHES ARE DIFFERENT, E.G. THE WAY WE PRONOUNCE WORDS LIKE BOTTLE, CATTLE, ETC.
- I don't know.
- Yes we do since there are some words that have gained currency over a certain periods of time and they no longer seem to be slang. In addition, English language is not constant therefore we need our own dictionary
- English dictionaries are already there in Zimbabwe so I don't think much will change with the addition of a Zimbabwean dictionary when it comes to English it is generally accepted that there is British English and American English. Zimbabwe has a British system of education so the dictionaries already produced in the country are adequate and can address whatever challenges. We do not need a particularly Zimbabwean English dictionary
- yes we need English dictionaries , see our English has been corupted and prostituted and therefore we need dictionaries that will define the new English that we have if you know what i mean, just like you will need to do another isichasamazwi later as new langu would have developed phela siyawabumba mfethu amabala
- 13. Do you think Zimbabwe needs to produce English dictionaries? (Please explain you answer) Every language needs a dictionary! English in Zimbabwe is a separate language that has its own idiosyncratic lexico-semantic features which should be reflected in a dictionary. So, a dictionary on Zim English is long, long, long, long overdue! For example, the meanings of kinship terms such as 'mother', 'father', 'son' etc in Zim English have broader semantic reference than British English and this should be reflected in our Zim English dictionary. What about direct loan words from local languages like Shona and Ndebele in domains such as biogeography, dances, children's games, flora and fauna etc into English? Where do we get the meanings of the words if there is no Zim English dictionary? You won't find the words and their meanings in an Oxford or Cambridge dictionary! I can say a lot about this issue! Actually, I am disappointed by the fact that ALRI has not yet considered doing this kind of work. Today, the world now accepts that English is not longer a monolithic Germanic language. It has been evolving and adapting new features in 'outer-circle' environments like Zim. It is now an African Language. A Zim language.
- Yes. There is Zimbabwean English as much as there are for example UK, USA, Australian, Canadian and South African Englishes.
- Considering that our Standard English is the British one, I think if Zimbabweans want to stick to the Standard English I would not see the need because our Cambridge Examinations

require the standard British English which I think is found in the English dictionaries compiled in Britain and sold in Zimbabwe. I think in Zimbabwe we need to focus on dictionaries in indigenous languages spoken in Zimbabwe. Even with the localization of our Examination system emphasis is still on the Standard British English hence since Britain is compiling English dictionaries I feel we just need to put our effort on compiling dictionaries in indigenous languages. Such a need may be necessary if we feel we now have a variety of English that is peculiar to Zimbabwe, but as long as we are emphasizing the Standard British English, lets use those compiled outside.

- Yes because English is not a mother tongue for the majority of the people as a result they have difficulties in spellings and meanings of some of the words.
- Yes because Zimbabwe is made of different people who speak different languges and therefore when using languges that are not their mother tounge they need the assistance of a dictionary. Dictionaries also help prserve different words in a language both words commonly used and those that may undergo transformation as societal culture changes.
- NO. We really do not need to re-invent it. English is not our language and we should take the lead from the English and rather concentrate on producing a Ndebele, Khalanga, etc dictionary.
- yes.to improve some shallow versions that are there

APPENDIX 3: DRAFT MODEL

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TOWARDS A MODEL FOR A LEXICOGRAPHICAL INTERVENTION IN THE ACQUISITION AND USE OF ENGLISH IN ZIMBABWE

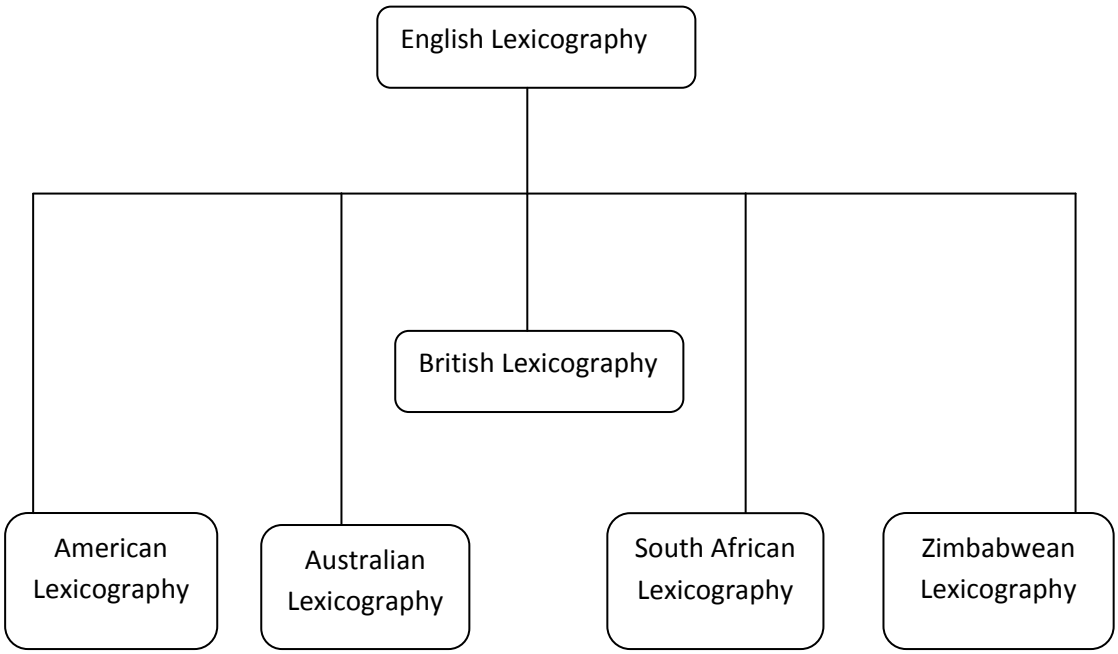
DOCTORAL RESEARCH#

DION NKOMO

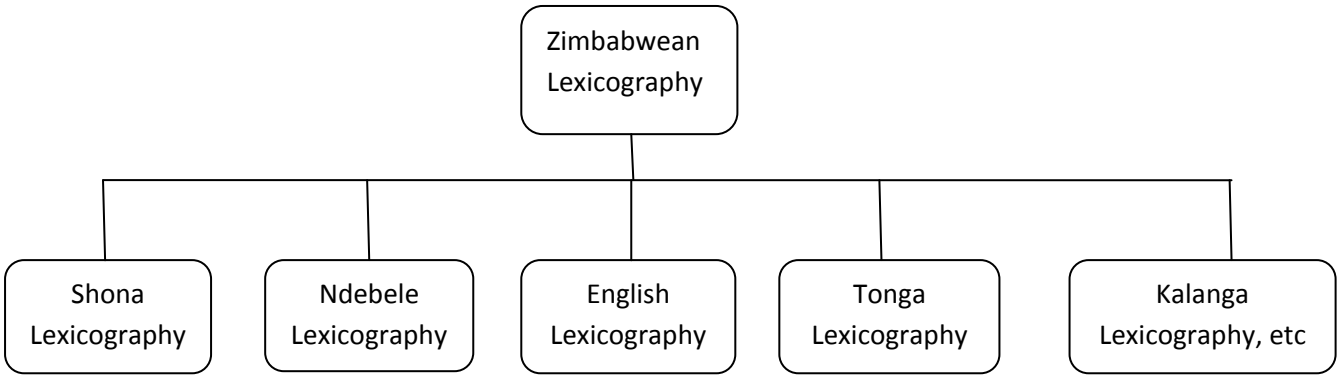
10/6/2011

This document presents a proposed model for a lexicographical intervention in the acquisition and use of English in Zimbabwe. It seeks to test the model by soliciting, through discussions with teachers and other stakeholders involved in teaching and testing of English through the education system, opinions and suggestions which may contribute to the availability of dictionaries that may be used by Zimbabwean students learning English in the country. Your participation will be highly appreciated and acknowledged while confidentiality and anonymity will be guaranteed where necessary. The results of this exercise will be used solely for academic purposes.

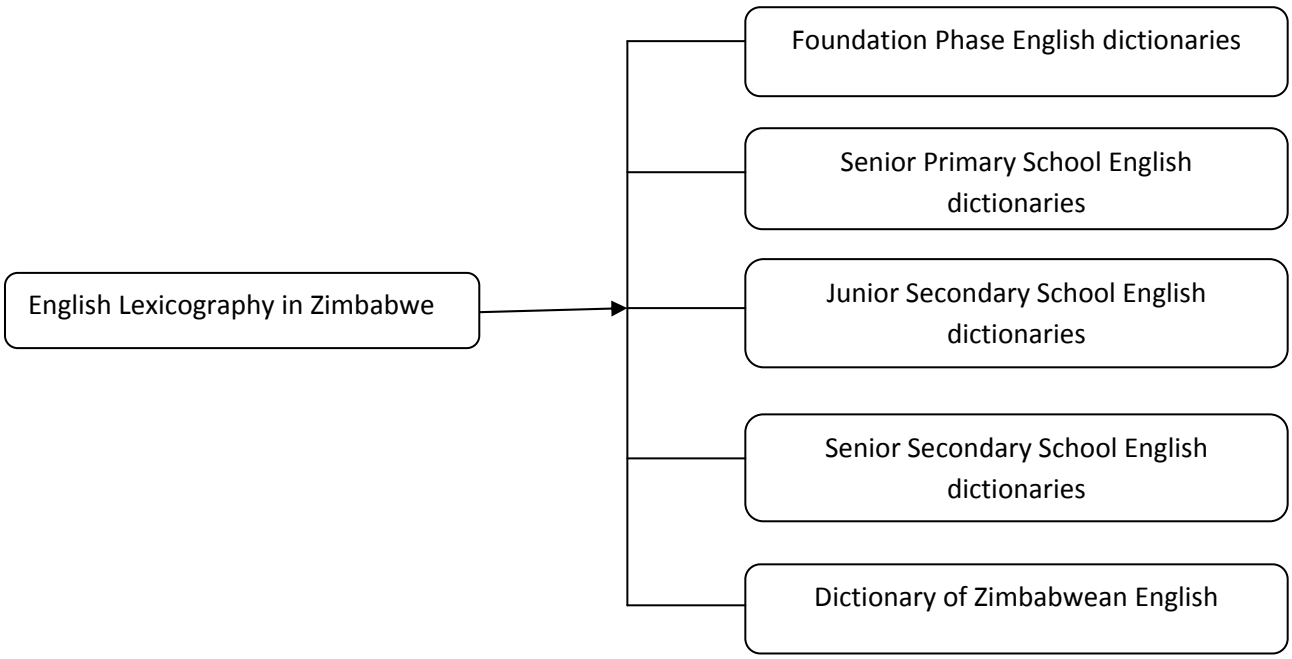
ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY IN ZIMBABWE AS PART OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY IN GENERAL



ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY IN ZIMBABWE AS PART OF ZIMBABWEAN LEXICOGRAPHY



A PROPOSED MODEL FOR ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY IN ZIMBABWE



APPENDIX 4: MODEL TESTING WORKSHOP EVALUATION REPORTS

Evaluation Report A

MPOPOMA HIGH SCHOOL

"Velamfundo"

Box 735

Bulawayo

Tel (09) 415162

E mail: mpohigh@yahoo.com **Fax (09) 418479**

11 July 2011

WORKSHOP EVALUATION- LEXICOGRAPHICAL INTERVENTION IN ENGLISH TEACHING

1. Staffers in the English Department were in agreement that such intervention was necessary and the use of dictionaries was a serious need if pupil performance if Language was to improve particularly against the following observations:

    a) Understanding of comprehension texts can be further enhanced if pupils are allowed to consult dictionaries

    b) Vocabulary tasks can also be achieved successfully if pupils have a general idea of the new words and transform words under scrutiny to comply with contextual grammatical requirements

    c) Use of dictionaries also enables learners to acclimatize with the different forms of words which also contributes towards the expansion of their vocabulary base.

    d) Pupils at different academic levels should also be exposed to dictionaries that suit their level of proficiency in English Language to avoid complicating their learning of the foreign language

e) It is necessary to also localize dictionary production in order to also accommodate the experiences of learners though there are logistical challenges that may arise among them, the cost of production, who produces the dictionary, the inclusion of 'mistakes' which might still be locally relevant etc.

Therefore, in conclusion there was general consensus to the point that dictionaries play a very important role in the learning process and that there are benefits to be derived from dictionary use. The members of staff found the workshop informative when it came to the issue of dictionary in education.

Evaluation Report B

The proposed model for English lexicography in Zimbabwe is of prime relevance to the current educational needs of the students in Zimbabwe. Particularly the foundation phase English dictionary presents a unique approach in enabling pupils to have a good foundation in the use of dictionaries. This foundation is an effective tool for enhancing pupils' education, hence a builder to build a strong foundation. Pupils should therefore be groomed at an early age, this will help widen pupils' vocabulary.

It has been noted by secondary school teachers that most pupils have problems in comprehension, reading and writing. Hence teachers are supportive of the proposed model as it would alleviate the problems mentioned above.

Moreover, the proposed model stipulates that there be a dictionary which has both English and native languages such as Ndebele and Shona. This is welcome as it would relate English words with their mother language. The current dictionaries are Eurocentric, for example word meanings in the dictionary such as *falcon*, this is not clear what type of bird is referred to in the African context. Hence the proposed model would help clarify that. The word *sadza* cannot be found in the dictionary buy it is widely used. As in some places, sadza is referred to as *thick porridge* and pupils generally are not able to connect the two meanings.

However, although proposed model is valued financial problems will affect the use of dictionaries as parents and schools will not afford to buy the dictionaries particularly from one stage to another as proposed. The use of dictionaries is low due to the fact that they are expensive and to implement the proposed model would be expensive.

Evaluation Report C

The use of dictionaries in the school is near to non-existent. The ZIMSEC exam set-up is such that the learner has to deduce meaning from the text but should not use a dictionary. In this regard dictionaries are lying idle in the libraries. In an attempt to abide to ministry rules, the dictionary has found no place in the Zimbabwean learning set-up.

This has only made life tougher for the learners who have to crack their heads in trying to find word meanings and yet the dictionaries are made for such times. Besides finding meanings to particular words, dictionaries offer other essential concepts of words which can only be of use if one uses a dictionary. This ZIMSEC set-up has a bias which is rather a barrier in dictionary use. This set-up has not facilitated the necessary dictionaries for the different levels. Dictionaries in the country are associated with higher schools only.

Evaluation Report C

The dictionary culture is non-existent in our school. This is because our exam regulations favour contextual meaning to the meaning found in the dictionary. Over the years we have observed learners who take the direct meaning of the word if they attempt to use the dictionary. This is because learners are not used to using dictionaries properly. More importantly learners now fear to even use the dictionary to refer to any word they do not understand as we teachers do not understand the paramount importance of the dictionary but because want our learners to pass what they will be tested in.

This theory is contradictory because spelling errors and misuse of words is prevalent in composition writing and in summary writing which in fact will be a good idea if learners were to be in a companion to the dictionary.

APPENDIX 5: CONFIRMATION OF RESEARCH

UNIVERSITEIT·STELLENBOSCH·UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

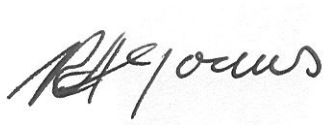
To whom it may concern

I hereby declare that Mr. Dion Nkomo is currently a registered student in the Doctoral Programme for Lexicography in the Department of Afrikaans and Dutch at the University of Stellenbosch. In order to do his research it is imperative that he has access to certain documentation from the Curriculum Development Unit and Zimbabwe School Examination Council, as well as assistance from primary and secondary schools. The information he retrieves from these documents will only be used for research purposes and the necessary acknowledgement will be given to the relevant authorities and institutions.

It will be appreciated if the needed access and assistance could please be granted to him.

I am available for any further enquiries.

Sincerely



Prof. RH Gouws
Promoter and Chair: Department of Afrikaans and Dutch

16 February 2010.

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DEPARTMENT OF AFRIKAANS AND DUTCH
Private Bag X1 7602 Matieland South Africa
Tel. (021) 808-2158 Fax (021) 808-38156
E-mail: afrsu @sun.ac.za

APPENDIX 6: CLEARANCE LETTER FROM THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION (ZIMBABWE)

APPENDIX 6: CLEARANCE LETTER FROM THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION (ZIMBABWE)

Ref:

all communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director"
Telephone: 09-69511/69942
Telegraphic: "SCHOLASTIC"
Telex: 50531 MPSEMN ZW
Fax: 09-77027

ZIMBABWE

Ministry of Education Sport, Arts and Culture
Bulawayo Metropolitan Province
P O Box 555
Bulawayo
Zimbabwe

16 June 2011

Mr Dion Nkomo
Stellenbosch
University

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH ON Dictionary use in English Teaching

With reference to your application to carry out a research on the above mentioned topic in the Educational Institutions under the jurisdiction of the Bulawayo Province. It is my pleasure to inform that permission is hereby granted. However, you should liaise with the Head of the Institution/School for clearance before carrying out your research.

It will also be appreciated if you could supply the Bulawayo Province with a final copy of your research which may contain information useful to the development of education in the province.

For: PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR (BULAWAYO METROPOLITAN PROVINCE)

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